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Social Studies in Relation to Social Change I*

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The publication by the Commission of the American Historical Association of its report on the social studies is an event of great importance in contemporary thinking. It is apparent that the members of the Commission have labored heroically to relate educational objectives in the social sciences to the dynamic modern world. The report as thus far published reveals a genuine concern for the preservation of the spirit of inquiry, tolerance, freedom of thought, and of the democratic tradition of good and enlightened citizenship. While the writer is inclined to accept whole-heartedly the social and educational ideals manifested in this report, it seems desirable to prevent a realistic and critical analysis which will utilize certain findings of the Commission as a means of raising further questions. Five general criticisms can be made.

I. CRITICAL COMMENTS

(A) *The identification of social sciences with the social studies* is open to question. Professor Beard holds of social science that "We may regard as closed the question whether there is any such branch of knowledge in any valid sense of the term as employed in real science. There is none. There is no reason for assuming that any deterministic science of human affairs or any part of them is possible."¹

He states elsewhere that "A real science in order to make a science out of data must have a system of data and all the relevant facts from the system. Then all the positions, properties, qualities, and mutual relations which constitute the state of the system must be capable of complete specification by a set of finite numbers. From a portion of the sequences under observation in time it can tentatively predict what will happen."²

There is indeed danger that science may be defined too broadly or too narrowly. Professor Beard has given a narrow definition, while Professor Waller in a recent brilliant article has been inclined to include within the body of science intuitions concerning very complex social phenomena.³

The present writer would define science as a cumulative pattern of transmis-

* Paper read at the 1934 meeting of the American Sociological Society.

¹ Charles A. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part VII, p. 37. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934.

² *Ibid.*, p. 25.

³ W. W. Waller, "Insight and the Scientific Method," *American Journal of Sociology*, XL (November, 1934), 285-297.

sible concepts having mutual implications, which is constantly checked and modified for consistency with new sense data but is still common to a considerable body of men at a particular time by virtue of similar sense impressions and similar rules of logical thought and action known as the scientific method.

It is true that the field of common concepts is of necessity limited in scope and that sooner or later complexity and obscurity force each person to branch off the highway and seek meanings alone down a pathway of philosophy, art, or perhaps religion. In the opinion of the writer, however, the term science should be used to designate the public conceptual world where formulas, categories, and implications are common intellectual currency. It is in one sense a stage of an epistemological process. Its limits are set by the criteria of transmissibility and by the agreement which arises from the application of generally accepted principles of scientific method.

From this general point of view exception may be taken to Beard's narrow conception of science. It would follow from his statement that the term biological sciences should be changed to biological studies and that Charles Darwin no longer be regarded as a real scientist, since he had little to do with real science as defined by Professor Beard. There are various aspects of sociology which meet at least the present writer's criteria perfectly, even though complete mathematical description and prediction is not possible for the entire system of phenomena. One gathers the impression that Beard is inclined to think in terms of broad historical processes and that he is not fully aware of the degree to which rigorous statistical methods have been applied by sociologists and psychologists.⁴ Complexity and unpredictability are a matter of degree. Sociologists can already state probabilities for most phenomena, and natural science is increasingly regarded as equally non-deterministic in the sense that probabilities rather than rigid laws must be stated.

Exception may be taken, then, to Beard's definition of science on the ground of (1) inaccuracy in refusing the name of science to bodies of knowledge which are derived by a uniform method and which have common acceptance and transmissibility, and (2) the consequences of such a narrow definition. There is the possibility on the one hand that the development of more precise descriptions of the social process will increasingly free the application of the term science to such formulations. On the other hand, as a practical consideration, there is danger that writing *social studies* in indelible ink to replace *social science* may strengthen the hand of the obscurantists, spread the gospel of scientific despair and hamper the march of the scientific method into new fields of observable phenomena.

(B) *Vagueness of social and educational philosophy* might be charged as another criticism of the report. There is an eloquent affirmation of democratic ideals, of tolerance and intellectual freedom, an indictment of existing abuses, and a warning that education should prepare for some form of collectivism. It

⁴Gardner and Lois Murphy, *Experimental Social Psychology*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1931.

is very difficult, however, to determine what is implied by collectivism. It may mean, apparently, either merely a growing economic integration and interdependence or imply a fundamental change in the framework of government.

It would seem that a more precise and realistic interpretation of collectivism would consider the manner in which it is likely to come about. If a collectivism of Communism or Fascism is to come about through the triumph, in a social struggle, of a militant and intolerant group, then the strategy for preserving democratic ideals would be quite different than if an evolutionary socialism were anticipated. The enlargement and enrichment of personality under Fascism might necessitate training of students to do as they are told and to live richly in a "totalitarian" state by subscribing whole-heartedly and uncritically to the dominant ideology. While it is true that members of the Commission could not be expected to be social prophets, it is nevertheless true that educational objectives might have been considered more realistically with reference to specific possibilities. It is possible that the educational objectives set forth in the democratic tradition might imply in the coming social order not a preparation for life but a preparation for death or for the concentration camp.

(C) *An ignoring of the educational implications of social complexity* may also be charged against the Commission. One gathers the impression that there is a cultural lag in the thinking on which the report is based. It is implied that it is possible for the student to know, understand, and to control his social environment through knowledge as in the days of the New England town meeting. A realistic view of the modern world suggests, however, that it is literally impossible to present the average college student with any real knowledge of the world in which he lives. By "real" is meant knowledge sufficient for a wise personal decision concerning the various specific issues which must be decided in a complex industrial society. It is probably true that eight hours a day of earnest reading by a student in wisely selected books and periodicals would give only a hazy impression as to the intelligent point of view in regard to problems of finance, international relations, and political change. The report seems pervaded by the misconception that the average citizen can really know his world and select leaders favoring policies born of that knowledge.

In the modern world there must be reliance upon authority. Only a favored few can be authorities in regard to their own life problems, and then only in specialized fields. In regard to vocational, economic, medical, domestic, religious, and political life adjustments, the average person must rely upon the authority of others. It would have seemed the part of wisdom for the Commission to frame certain objectives with this fact in mind. It might be suggested that the teaching of the social sciences should be focused on the following principles. (1) Teaching should be relevant to the life adjustments ultimately to be made by the individual student. (2) There should be a training of judgment so that in the necessary absence of perfect knowledge shrewd guesses can be made, especially in regard to leadership. (3) If the democratic tradition is accepted, a healthy skepticism should

be encouraged, calculated to give some immunity to the more blatant propaganda of pressure groups. (4) The ancient maxim "know thyself" should be given a new emphasis in the sense that the student should be instructed as to mechanisms of rationalization, wishful thinking, and susceptibility to impulsive group behavior. (5) Above all, since authorities must be chosen, there should be training as to the characteristics of a good authority. It would not be amiss to stress with ample illustration in various fields, the proposition that a good authority is characterized by specific knowledge, freedom from bias, modesty of claims, standing with experts, and awareness of differences in human tastes and human values.

(D) *Failure to face the basic problem of choosing between educational propaganda and futility* may be alleged as a fourth weakness of the Report. It is implied that education must prepare the young to live in a new world, but the emphasis is on intellectual rather than emotional training. The Commission goes little further than to recognize that "objective study of itself does not and cannot provide society or the individuals comprising it with will, force, or purpose."⁵ There are four lines of evidence which suggest that the teachers of social sciences in both secondary schools and colleges may be faced with the actual dilemma of choosing between *propagandized teaching* and *futility*.

(1) Both experiment and common observation show that the bulk of *the factual content of a formal lecture is forgotten in a few weeks*.⁶ This point needs no elaboration.

(2) There is reason to think that the mass of students are relatively indifferent to factual instruction. The tradition of mass education has brought thousands of students into colleges with the simple belief that passive exposure to the atmosphere of the classroom will somehow yield an economic or social advantage. Probably the majority of students fight their way past the various academic barriers toward a degree concerned essentially with the symbol rather than with the reality. It is difficult for objective instruction to compete for young people's interest with sensational journalism, radio ballyhoo, the impressive appeals to the eye and ear offered by the movies and in general with a seductive dream world of stereotypes, false alternatives, dark villains, magical remedies, denunciation and glorification, all of which appeal to facile artistic thinking and provide a subtle stimulus for every passion and for every prejudice. It is easy for the academically minded to project their own more sophisticated tastes into the minds of students and to forget the truth which they know only with their intellects that emotion is more congenial to the human animal than reason. The youth movements of Germany, Italy, and Russia show the deep-seated yearning for life based on faith rather than on fact.

(3) Furthermore, modern attitude research is throwing light on the relatively

⁵ *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission*, p. 9. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934.

⁶ F. A. C. Perrin and D. B. Klein, *Psychology, Its Methods and Principles*, p. 268. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1926.

slight degree to which formal education affects basic attitudes. Jones found that the opinions of college students depended more on early training than on courses taken in college.⁷ Young found little effect produced on racial evaluations of students by a course in race problems.⁸ Relatively little effect of formal college instruction on belief was found by Stone.⁹ Vetter and Green found college education mentioned relatively rarely as an explanation of the attitudes of members of the American Association for the Advancement of Atheism.¹⁰ On the other hand, Harris, Remmers and Ellison found some tendency for liberalism to be associated with training in sociology.¹¹ Willoughby also finds a relationship between liberalism and exposure to academic influences.¹² Allport and Katz, who have made perhaps the most comprehensive survey of student attitudes and opinion, find some relation between attitudes and education.¹³ The question still remains open, however, as to whether selection, age, outside reading, and extra classroom contacts may not be responsible for changes in attitudes that take place during the period of exposure to formal education in the social sciences.

(4) The sociological in-group out-group relationship between students and faculty which exists in many institutions also suggests that futility as far as social change is concerned is the lot of those teachers who refuse the aid of propaganda. The faculty as members of an out-group with reference to the student body almost by definition have little prestige to glorify and render impressive their pronouncements. It is quite possible that any banality from a fraternity president or campus athlete carries more weight than the profoundest wisdom from the mouth of a professor who stands behind a desk and defends the "standards" from student enemies who are trying to get something for nothing.¹⁴

It may be very properly pointed out that whether a real and significant alternative exists between propaganda and futility depends on the meaning of propaganda. The writer would regard social influences modifying attitudes as propaganda in proportion as (1) there is a conscious attempt to modify attitudes as such; (2) the use of demonstrable falsehoods; (3) use of exaggerated or half truths; (4) the use of emotional appeals; (5) the concealment of motive. Probably every effective teacher is in some degree a propagandist from this point of view even if it is merely the attitude of intellectual curiosity which he is trying

⁷ E. S. Jones, "The Opinions of College Students," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, X (December, 1926), 427-436.

⁸ D. R. Young, "Some Effects of a Course in American Race Problems on the Race Prejudice of 450 Undergraduates at the University of Pennsylvania," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXII (1927), 235.

⁹ C. L. Stone, *Effect of College Instruction on Belief*, p. 415. Report of Ninth International Congress of Psychology.

¹⁰ C. B. Vetter and M. Green, "Personality and Group Factors in the Making of Atheists," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXVII (1932), 179-194.

¹¹ A. J. Harris, H. H. Remmers, and C. C. Ellison, "The Relation Between Liberal and Conservative Attitudes in College Students and Other Factors," *Journal of Social Psychology*, III (1932), 320-326.

¹² R. R. Willoughby, "A Sampling of Student Opinion," *Journal of Social Psychology*, I (1930), 164-169.

¹³ F. H. Allport and Daniel Katz, *Student Attitudes*. New York: Craftsman Press, 1931.

¹⁴ W. W. Waller, *The Sociology of Teaching*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1932.

to modify. Most behavior in the classroom and outside says in effect "Be more and more like me."

The fact that there is an element of propaganda in all teaching does not necessarily mean that there should be more propaganda in the teaching of social science. The problem does remain, however, of just what teachers of social science want in the way of social change and how much propaganda they are willing to introduce into their teaching in order to further that kind of change. Even if objective teaching does not imply complete futility from the point of view of changing personalities and institutions, it is relatively futile as compared with propagandized teaching such as that of Soviet Russia.

(E) *The expression of ideals and desires* which are possibly incompatible with the implications of democratic education may be noted as a fifth questionable feature of the report. Hard-headed, tough-minded realism seems to be lacking. The Commission states that: "Cumulative evidence supports the conclusion that, in the United States as in other countries, the age of individualism and *laissez faire* in economy and government is closing and that a new age of collectivism is emerging." The Commission deems desirable the avoidance of intolerance and ethnocentrism and the maintenance of personal liberty; it deems possible and desirable group harmony, toleration and the spread of accurate knowledge among the masses of the American people together with an enlightened attitude toward international relations; it deems desirable freedom of thought and emphasis on the scientific method; it deems desirable the utilization of the full richness of our cultural heritage and an application to resources of the full power of modern technology.¹⁵

The Commission merely desires all the benefits of the old régime plus the advantages of the new age of "collectivism." There is no objection to the voicing of desire, but the Commission seems inclined to identify desire and possibility and to draw dangerously near the position of *expecting* to have the cake and also eat it. There seems a real possibility that a fundamental incompatibility exists between the material efficiency of collectivism and democratic educational ideals. It is not uncommon for educators to ignore the full sociological implications of democratic education for independent judgment, skeptical thinking, the fulfillment of the individual personality and the like. These implications include five items.

(1) There is first the tendency to individuation which creates so many different kinds of personality that coöperation, solidarity, and morale are difficult to attain. The individual is no longer a simple organization of habits which can be readily dovetailed into the equally simple habit systems of other non-individuated persons. The modern divorce rate doubtless reflects this difficulty of interrelating individuated personalities.

(2) In the second place there is the tendency to culture conflict. The culture

¹⁵ *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission*, pp. 19-27. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934.

of the group becomes heterogeneous, drawn from varied sources, and for a time at least, lacking in consistency. Democratic education is responsible to a considerable degree for bringing conflicting cultural elements together.

(3) A third implication of democratic education as extolled by the Commission might be termed contentiousness. From the first grade to the graduate seminar, student is pitted against student in a kind of intellectual exhibitionism. There is ego identification with an exact shade of meaning and an eagerness to belittle or to refute the arguments of others. To the disputation tradition of the medieval scholastics is added the skepticism born of the scientific method. The result is perhaps the sifting out of the truth but also the partition of truth into so many petty schisms that collective action is impossible. As an exhibit A to illustrate this point may be cited the refusal of four members of the Commission to sign the *Conclusions and Recommendations*. The writer's paper might be cited as exhibit B. Contentiousness within a planning group is reinforced by contentiousness from without.

(4) A fourth implication of democratic education and the culture conflict which it has aided and abetted is a confused and ambiguous definition of social situations. It is perhaps fortunate that students are fairly well insulated by indifference from the full implications of cultural and ethical relativity as presented in sociology courses. When democratic education does undertake to inculcate values, the assortment is so varied and contradictory that the student is left bewildered in a fog of sophomoric cynicism or else returns to the blind acceptance of the values of primary groups that are most meaningful to him. Certain impulsive crowd movements are born of discontent with doubt and uncertainty and perhaps that is true of Fascism and Hitlerism. It may be that in a "sacred" and static primary group the human being finds the greatest contentment.

(5) The final implication of democratic education which seems to be ignored by those who see in such education the means to every good and perfect gift is personality disorganization. We hear much about education as a means to crime prevention and to sane living, but it is probably true that education has corroded the old values by the acid of relativity and blinded the eyes of the simple follower by a cloud of conflicting points of view. It may actually provide a rationalization for actions known to the majority as crimes and contribute to mental conflicts leading to neuroticism. It may well be that the oft-cited virtues of democratic education defended by the Commission are worth the cost, but at least the cost should be known.

The following extracts from a paper written by a college student entitled "Johnnie Comes of Age" illustrate admirably the above mentioned points and are worthy of much pondering by any social scientist or educator.

Johnnie's been to high school; high schools aren't just what they should be. In the first place the torch of knowledge is beginning to flicker above the school doors. Pretty much of the education Johnnie has gleaned from high school is mere pooh-bah! What little genuine learning that was tossed in with the propaganda, obsolete theories, misleading so-called facts, and perfidious teacher's piffle was either in heavy disguise or useless.

Johnnie's learned a lot at high school that wasn't meant to be taught there. Things about girls that have raised the devil with his morals. Things like where the best bootlegger lives and how to roll a seven and stop a crap. Oh, yes! Johnnie's learned a lot of things at high school that are going to help him when he gets out into the world. Things that have helped make a nice, clean-cut fellow of him.

Colleges are supposed to equip one for business with life. Maybe I'm wrong, but it seems to me that Johnnie's going to have a devil of a time buttering his bread with parallel structure and philology. And I doubt that a prospective employer will remember to ask Johnnie in what era *Pithecanthropus Erectus* existed or what the *Cephied Variables* are. Johnnie may have learned a lot at college, but I doubt that it will do him a helluva lot of good.

Another thing about college: it hasn't done Johnnie's religion much good. Of course, Johnnie never was too strong on church stuff, but I wonder whether one of a sterner caliber could withstand learning's onslaught upon religion. Johnnie may not have learned correctly, but his mind is set and the impressions he carries with him are clear. Johnnie has studied a little about evolution. Evolution does not edify the Biblical expression of the creation. And although history has taught Johnnie that Protestants have been brought about to accept the evolutionary doctrine, he finds it incompatible with his notions about the Bible. Johnnie has had a little anthropology: Johnnie has found that there is concrete evidence that man was created, not four thousand-odd years ago, as the Bible implies, but some three hundred to five hundred thousand years ago. Some persons of a steadier temperament may be able to fix the one fact in their minds without disturbing the other; Johnnie can't. For Johnnie there isn't left much of a domain for God to walk in. Johnnie has taken a course in sociology; he has learned that people, in the name of God, enter a simple and happy country, carrying to it all the vice and lust of Christian civilization; and that this missionary work is not so much to spread the gospel as to exploit the people and rape the land of all that is golden. Johnnie has read of great nations of fine, true men who have fallen to the panderings of their teacher—all in the name of God. Of course, Johnnie is young, and youth is impetuous and leaps to conclusions that sager men would frown upon. But Johnnie is Johnnie, and I think it would be pretty futile to attempt to change what is innate.

Johnnie does not go the full way and say there is no God. Johnnie only says, "What the hell. It's all pretty cockeyed to me. There is and yet there isn't; and there might be and yet there can't be." Such indecision is worse than mistaken determination. Johnnie is left stranded without the comfort that a belief in God lends the troubled soul, or the elation and superiority that atheism promotes. Johnnie is unbalanced enough to make as pretty a case as a psychiatrist could wish.

Morals, honor, patriotism, sympathy—college has demanded that Johnnie shed all that was left after high school had finished with him. To Johnnie the world has become Johnnie's world or no world. Johnnie is the most important man in the world; the world will sit up and take notice when Johnnie steps in to take control. Maybe.

If one is canny at reading between the lines, one can see written on Johnnie's diploma: this certifies that Johnnie, having developed the necessary cynicism, grasped our impractical theories; having thrown aside what might have constituted an obstruction to a critical approach, namely a personal code of honorable conduct and ethics, and having completed the prepared course in popular propaganda, is herewith awarded this certificate of completion—to do with as he will . . . start a fire or wrap a lunch.

However you look at it, one thing is certain: Johnnie is pretty thoroughly debunked!

Johnnie's going to think college professors are a screwy lot, too, in two or three years. He'll have discovered by then that it's one thing to stand on a rostrum, backed by a three or four or five-thousand dollar salary, and preach the implicit doctrine of work, and another to take a stand before a business man and tell him how to run his business. Johnnie won't even think college professors are dreamers then: dreamers may be batty, but at least they have two feet on the earth. I think perhaps I'll be glad I'm not a professor when Johnnie starts to denounce them.

Johnnie will find a world that is hungry, but is too inert to reach over the tops of elevators and into the cupboards. He'll find a world that is tired, but is so busy doing nothing that it hasn't time to rest. He'll find a world that would like to go back to work, but has forgotten in which cup the key to the shop was placed. He'll find a world struggling along on an inadequate social, economic, and governmental base that was hoary with age when Johnnie's father went to town.

And most important of all, to Johnnie's innards, at least, Johnnie will find a world that won't even give him a chance to earn a meager living—much less develop his talents. Johnnie will get in the way of the world, and the world will trample him, and kick him, and toss him aside—he, a college graduate!

It wouldn't be so bad if Johnnie were alone, but there are thousands of Johnnies coming of age tomorrow. It's going to be fun to watch them scoot helplessly about for the first couple days. But then things will begin to happen. Johnnie; and Johnnie and Johnnie will meet another Johnnie. And then all the Johnnies that have come to town will get together and several low growls will rise from their throats. And before long it won't be several low growls any more, but one rasping, ominous snarl that will shake this town, and others, as far apart as Ipswich and Sacramento.

Johnnie's come of age tomorrow; Johnnie's going to town. Johnnie's going to be stepped on and Johnnie's going to snarl.

I guess maybe there's going to be much hell to pay, and then won't the sociologists have fun!

The report of the Commission has been criticized for identifying social science with social studies, vagueness of social and educational philosophy, ignoring the implications of social complexity, failure to face a possible dilemma between propaganda and futility, and for the expression of ideals which may be actually incompatible with the implications of democratic education as revealed in the case just cited. There are seven lines of evidence which lead to the more general conclusion that social-science teaching is relatively impotent as a factor in social change.

(To be Continued)

The Idea of Uncertainty and the Teaching of the Social Sciences

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Political and economic conditions since 1929 have emphasized the need of a more realistic approach to the study of the social sciences both in secondary schools and colleges; but, the majority of teachers have not heeded this emphasis and continue to teach, whether by force of circumstances or personal inclination, the so-called principles of government which no longer apply to existing conditions. In doing so, such teachers show themselves as totally inadequate, and unfit to participate in the development of the mind of the student. They deny the very purposes of education. Education in the social sciences means more than a knowledge of Aristotle's *Politics*, Rousseau's *Contract Social*, the Cabinet system, money and banking, and labor unions. All this is important, but education also means the ability and willingness on the part of the student to adapt himself positively to new and unexpected political and economic situations. It is a part of the teacher's function in society to so condition the student that the facts and theories he learns will, automatically if possible, secure this result. One factor in accomplishing this purpose is the inculcation of the idea of uncertainty.

The dogmatic teaching of the social sciences, obviously, is dangerous. What individual today could affirmatively approach the problem of unemployment with concrete ideas he culled from the teacher of economic dogma or textbook? Such instruction, as the professor of fixed principles has to give, yields only unintelligence, reaction or negation and, most important of all, a desire to preserve a social system that exists only in the mind.

It is a truism that certainty does not exist even in the so-called exact sciences. Consider the number of principles that have been either modified or discarded in chemistry, in physics, and biology. A certain condition, long observed and accepted as "fact," under new techniques and methods becomes only a "half-fact" or no fact at all. Those phenomena accepted as facts serve as the basis of principles, and principles are axiomatic, purporting to contain "truth." But, often the facts change, and here the observer, if he is a true man of science, will stand prepared to alter his principle that it may be more in harmony with the altered facts. One can go even farther and say that if our scientist is intelligent, on the basis of the new facts, he will not enunciate a new principle, but a new hypothesis. He will always assume that no matter how often he observes the same phenomenon, there may be error; not only this, he must realize that as yet an undiscovered technique may make dreams of his facts.

Lewis¹ says that if the discovery of the fallibility of a previously accepted

¹ Gilbert N. Lewis, *The Anatomy of Science*, p. 154. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1926.

scientific law "comes to us as a great disillusionment, it is only because our minds are tinged from infancy with the hoary superstition of the absolute. We say, 'If this great law is not always true, what becomes of our other exact laws.' But," continues Lewis, "can we have no reverence for any institution without making the childish assumption of its infallibility? Can we not see that exact laws, like all other ultimates or absolutes, are as fabulous as the crock of gold at the rainbow's end?" If the natural scientists find it so difficult to attribute certainty to their laws, trite as the question may seem, how can the individual hope to find it in legal rules, in the political or economic system? Yet this is what is done.

If history teaches us anything, it is that society is not static. This lesson, simple as it is, and implied in the most elementary textbook, has been ignored. Society, local, national and international, is constantly in a state of flux. Society, like life, is a process of growth and deterioration, and it does not stand still—the conditions of its existence are ever changing. Right now, we are a part of this process. And, whether we like it or not, change is inevitable.

The desire for certainty, however, is all-important. We like to feel certain of the economic system which made our money for us and the political system which affords our economic position adequate protection. We like to feel certain of husband, wife, God, business associate; we like to feel certain of ourselves. Life must be hectic for those who seek this will-o'-the-wisp, this certainty, for it must be obvious that about the only reliable certainty is uncertainty. This, it is believed, should be constantly stressed by the teacher. Since political rules are valid only in relation to a given set of circumstances, and since these circumstances are constantly changing, it seems only logical that students should be trained to an honest skepticism of all political principles, and as a result, cast aside more readily those principles which no longer correspond with the facts of social life. Even the rules of democratic government should be treated as mere hypotheses and not as principles which must be held dear in spite of the fact that they may no longer, in the face of circumstances, be accurate. It will be asked, "What, then, will we do without certainty?" But, is it not possible for the teacher to grasp and impart to the student the idea of probability; the idea that certainty may be attributed to certain rules under certain conditions but not under others; the idea that life, social or otherwise, is teeming with inevitable dangers, uncontrollable and sudden? Espousing the idea of uncertainty and realizing that the social system of today may not be that of tomorrow, is not the student anticipating possible change, and in doing so, is he not better prepared to meet that change affirmatively?

This attitude, it would seem, is essentially protective and means preparedness for future alterations in government or economic system. It would mean, besides, greater mental flexibility, greater intelligence in the individual's approach to social problems, a deeper understanding, and a more reasonable philosophical response to new situations and changing facts. It is an attitude, not of negation, but of affirmation.

Teaching Ninth and Tenth Grade Pupils How to Summarize

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It is generally agreed upon that summarizing is a desirable and necessary part of the work in the social sciences, that skill and efficiency in grasping and recording essentials will greatly aid the pupil in obtaining a better hold on the material with which he has to deal as well as be of service to him later in life after he has left school. If a teacher decides to make extensive use of this tool, he or she should first justify the time to be so spent. Accordingly, it is submitted that training in the skill of summarizing tends to have the following beneficial effects upon the pupil's study habits: (1) summarizing gives him experience in expression; (2) it helps him in applying the principles he supposedly has mastered; (3) training is afforded in selecting items, incidents, phrases which are essential—in other words, the pupil is trained to discriminate; (4) the complete exercise should give the student a sense of mastery; (5) summaries can be of use in reviewing; (6) careful reading must result, which will tend to minimize the confusion of facts; (7) training in concentration is developed and, (8) the teacher can definitely check the pupil's progress.

Having arrived at the conviction that summarizing justifies the use of considerable time, the instructor should then plan his course so as to include specific work leading to the development of that skill. This planning would include a list of the types of summaries, ranging from the simplest to the more complex, which students are to master. The list might include the following: sentence summaries; short paragraph summaries emphasizing description, characterization, and analysis; summaries of more than one paragraph in length, leading to summary-paragraph outlines; outlines, descriptive and analytical; the conversion of summaries into outlines, and vice versa.

Furthermore, as much social-science work for the ninth and tenth grades is based upon the unit plan, certain summary work can be incorporated into each unit. The teacher can set up as one objective for each unit the acquisition of the skill of writing one type of summary, the sequence of types paralleling that in the list of types previously mentioned. Thus, in taking up the first unit, the teacher would, after introducing the subject, probably emphasize sentence summaries centered around one or two main thoughts, and would select his material in the unit accordingly. The second type of summary might be developed in connection with the second unit, wherein provision should be made for review of the simpler type already mastered.

With the study of each subsequent unit, provisions would be made for specific training in writing summaries, directly connected with, and developing

immediately from, the preceding study. Thus, as the horizon of content in the course broadens, the students' ability to summarize is correspondingly and systematically increased. The mastery of the content of the course is accompanied by the acquisition of a useful and valuable skill, so that for example, by the time the class in world history is ready to take up the unit "Imperialism in the late Nineteenth Century," the pupils, who at the beginning of the year labored to construct simple sentence summaries, might, from this one unit alone, be able to complete several or all of the following types:

1. Sentence summaries of the meaning of Imperialism.
2. Short paragraph summaries of outstanding topics, for example, "The reasons why Imperialism developed in Europe after 1870."
3. Summaries of several paragraphs illustrating the imperialistic activities of one country.
4. Summary outlines of such inclusive topics as "Imperialism as a major movement in European History after 1870."
5. Summaries from collateral reading of the activities of the leaders of the period, for example, Cecil Rhodes.
6. Summaries from newspapers or magazines of imperialistic activities in the world today, as Japan in Manchukuo.

It perhaps should be added that once a teacher decides to use such a systematic procedure, he should not bind himself to it absolutely; if he discovers that a class progresses faster than he anticipated, he can easily proceed more rapidly with the summary work; and if, on the other hand, he is dealing with a group that is slower than average, he can proceed more deliberately with the development of summaries. The plan, in short, should be the servant, and not the master, of the instructor.

With this background in mind, the teacher might consider the steps to be taken in the classroom somewhat as follows:

1. Leading the pupils to an understanding of what a summary is. In doing this a teacher might proceed by first raising the general question in class, "Who can tell us what a summary is?" The answers volunteered would, of course, be inadequate, but they would serve as a starting point in arousing interest and focusing attention on the word "Summary." The ideas submitted should, if possible, be woven into a compact definition (more or less formulated by the teacher's guidance) which might then be written on the blackboard.

With the definition thus determined upon, and in plain sight where it can be referred to when necessary, specific examples should then be considered. Sometimes these can be taken from the textbook, sometimes the teacher may have on hand summaries made by the students in previous years, or he may write several. The summary and the original paragraph to be discussed should be where all can see them easily, either in the textbook, on the blackboard, or on mimeographed sheets. Then the teacher may lead a discussion in which the nature of the summary is made clear, and its chief characteristics—compactness, brevity,

clearness, expression, and unity—are noted. Next, a comparison with the original may be made to bring out still more clearly the nature of the summary. Two or three examples, illustrating the simpler types, may be considered in detail in this way, with ample opportunity for pupil comment and discussion. With a superior group, the simpler can, at this time, be compared with the more complex types, but with most groups, the introduction of too many types might serve only to confuse the pupils.

2. After ascertaining that the pupils understand the meaning of "summary," and the value of its use in studying the social sciences, it may be well to justify the writing of such summaries. Any written work, particularly written work which requires such exactness and care as does summarizing, will be looked upon as mere drudgery by the class unless the students can see its desirability and usefulness. It may not be possible to prove to their entire satisfaction that such work is desirable and useful; nevertheless, an approach can be made through certain suggestions which may help to tie up this school activity with adult life. Suggestions as to "Why we should write summaries" could be obtained from the members of the class and written on the blackboard. The teacher can use several suggestions made by Tryon in connection with note-taking in general.¹ He may cite other examples. The physician may find the ability to take notes (and summarize) useful in compiling references; the clergyman in working up a sermon; the business man in recording, classifying, and unifying his information peculiar to his business; the farmer in cataloging his notes on methods of feeding and breeding; the traveling salesman in recording his business activities. By an approach along these lines, it can be emphasized that skill in grasping essentials, in arranging facts, in the power of expression, will be useful and desirable in many walks of life.

3. Before the actual writing of summaries begins, one caution should be put forth, namely, that summarizing is not copying, but involves the presentation of facts and ideas in the pupils' own words. Also, any necessary directions in regard to mechanics should be given, such as the type of paper to be used, and the arrangement of the work on the paper. Insistence upon mechanical details will help to develop accuracy and order in the pupils' habits.

4. Pupils should be directed to turn to a specific paragraph and summarize step by step. First, they should be instructed to read the paragraph through once to get the main thought. A good check on the effectiveness of the reading is to have each pupil close his book and write the main thought on scrap paper. The teacher may go from desk to desk ascertaining how well this had been done. Following this, the pupils should be directed to re-read the paragraph noting the thought in each sentence and deciding which point should be incorporated in the summary. It may be advisable to work coöperatively, the teacher calling for facts from each sentence to be retained in the summary, and for volunteer

¹ R. M. Tryon, *The Teaching of History in the Junior and Senior High School*, p. 117. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1921.

suggestions as to the best means of weaving each fact into the summary. In this way the resulting summary is the product of the class as a whole. As has already been pointed out, in developing the simplest type of summary, namely the sentence summary, there would be not more than one or two main thoughts incorporated into the summary.

5. Proceeding from this point, a second paragraph may be chosen, read once by the pupils for the main thought, then re-read, the pupils noting individually, the thought in each sentence to be used in the summary. Sometimes, especially when a new type is to be considered, it may be well to repeat the coöperative construction of the summary before allowing the members of the class to work individually; at other times the teacher may suggest that this should be done after the individually written summaries have been completed. The instructor will use his own judgment as to what procedure will meet the given conditions.

6. A comparison of results may follow the written work. This can be done by having several summaries read and commented upon and criticized by the group, or by having several written on the blackboard, to be examined and criticized. Following this, each student may compare his summary with the original to note any omission or extraneous material in his work, after which it might be well to have the summaries re-written. This can be checked by the teacher as the students are working. The final results may be discussed briefly, any marked improvements or glaring errors being brought to the attention of all, and the papers filed in the notebook.

7. But as drill is necessary in the acquisition of any skill, frequent reviews of the work with summaries are desirable. After the first presentation of each type, the work may be taken up again a day or two later, and frequently thereafter. For emphasis and review questions the following questions might serve to re-introduce the subject: "What is a summary?" "What are its uses?" "What is the purpose of the first reading?" "Of the second reading?" "What types have been already studied?" When the questions have been satisfactorily answered another definite reference may be assigned and the procedure outlined above may be followed.

8. Both teacher and pupils can easily note the progress made as the work is taken up from time to time. The pupils having difficulties can be given extra guidance and drill. No set rule can be given as to how much summarizing should be attempted; the teacher will be the judge as to how much is necessary, desirable, and purposeful in his handling of the course. Furthermore, as the pupils acquire proficiency in writing the several kinds of summaries, some of the steps in the formal procedure may be omitted.

9. As soon as the pupils have acquired suitable proficiency, material other than the textbook may be used. Source material of some kinds can be used to advantage, and summaries of collateral readings can be required; for after learning how to summarize, pupils should be encouraged to extend their range

as much as is possible and practicable. As a means of variation, it has already been suggested that the conversion of outlines into summaries has its place in this work. Thus, skill in using the powers of expression to convert to a new form what has already been accomplished through the skill of organization is utilized.

10. At suitable times the pupils' ability to summarize should, of course, be tested. A good method is to set a time limit on the exercise, requiring the pupils to read, re-read, and submit written summaries within a given number of minutes. The pupils as well as the teacher can note progress. Moreover, the pupils may find added incentive to prove their work if progress within a time limit is called to their attention.

In making use of these ten steps, the teacher will find steps 1, 2, 3, 6, and 7 particularly useful at the beginning of the course; steps 4 through 8 particularly helpful in developing each new type of summary; and 9 and 10 useful whenever desirable. The use of the procedure described above should not become mechanical, but it should be the aid and servant of the instructor.

This discussion, in summary, includes: (1) a presentation of the idea that skill in summarizing is desirable, necessary, worthy of development; (2) a suggested method for the use of summaries in the general teaching procedure, and (3) a series of ten steps which may be employed in teaching pupils to acquire this skill. The suggestions are not intended to be all-inclusive, but they may serve to indicate the possibilities available for the development of skill in writing summaries. This is a difficult and arduous task, but with suitable and sufficient drill along these lines, the acquired skill can be made an effective tool for use in social sciences and in the activities which form a part of adult life.

The Literature of American History, 1934

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I

The historiography of a generation yields readily enough to interpretation; if we are bold we may presume to trace the main currents of historical literature during a more limited period. Thus we may say that the historical writings of the generation before the Civil War bore the impress of romanticism or that for a decade after Appomattox the sectional struggle was transferred from the battlefield to the library. But despite that process of acceleration which Henry Adams discerned with mathematical precision, it would be sheer recklessness to generalize about the literature of a single year. Journalism may be immediately responsive to the swift cross-currents of public interest, and imaginative literature often reflects and sometimes predicts the direction of thought and of emotion. Scholarship, however, concerns itself with matters of more than ephemeral interest; it seeks to explain public opinion rather than to keep pace with it; its very ideal of objectivity demands some immunity from mere fashion. It is not possible for us therefore to describe a year in terms of the scholarly productions of that year, or to discover in those publications any characteristic reaction to current events.

This is not to say, however, that scholarship is unaffected by even the most temporary changes in the intellectual climate, or literature by the most prosaic of circumstances. It is some time now since the scholar has been supposed to occupy an ivory tower, but even such an acropolis is not isolated from the winds of the heavens or from the noises of the streets below, and when the scholar emerges from his tower, manuscript in hand, he has to speak the language of the market-place. Nor can we ignore, in our evaluation of the literature of a year of acute economic distress, those factors of public opinion and of commerce that so largely affect the reception of the scholarly product. The influence of the market is too obvious to require emphasis. During the piping years of prosperity publishers were willing to take many a fling into the realm of scholarship; the depression has inspired some of them with timidity and tempted others into vulgarization. This situation has had one important consequence: it has placed a heavy responsibility upon the non-commercial presses, these have been for the most part discriminating, and the result has been to reduce the volume and raise the general level of learned literature. Upon the university presses; in particular, has rested the responsibility for the sustenance of scholarship, and their achievements have been notable.

We must confine ourselves to a consideration of the historical literature of the year 1934; most of our generalizations will apply with equal force to the literature of the past five years, some of them to the literature of the post-war era. The near-collapse of our society has resulted, as might be expected, in a searching analysis of the bases of that society, and in a tendency to question many of the assumptions of the past. Men have sought an explanation of the present crisis in a philosophy of history, or they have elaborated a philosophy of history to explain the crisis. The Marxist interpretation of history has been boldly advanced, and much of American history has been

poured afresh into Marxian molds, but, without alloys, the product has been excessively brittle. Yet even those historians who do not subscribe to the Communist Manifesto have been sensitive to this new influence, and economic interpretations have insinuated themselves into the most unexpected places. Many of the artificial barriers separating the social sciences have been swept away; it is increasingly difficult to distinguish between history, politics, economics, and sociology, and even literature has lost its isolation. Every generation, apparently, has to discover for itself the unity of life and of culture; the ambition to achieve a synthesis is a laudable one, but we are sometimes likely to forget that neither Voltaire in the eighteenth nor Buckle in the nineteenth century considered history to be merely past politics. The disappointments of the present have led some historians to look hopefully to a future Utopia, and to imagine that we are the people; others have found solace in a nostalgia for the past. Criticism of the industrial order has led to a re-evaluation of an agrarian, and has contributed to the elaboration of a philosophy of regionalism that is perhaps the most arresting development in recent American literature.

II

No student of American history can afford to ignore the monumental *Study of History* by Arnold Toynbee,¹ three volumes of which have appeared. It is not an exaggeration to say that this work is the most ambitious attempt to formulate a philosophy of history since Buckle's *History of Civilization in England*. In these preliminary volumes Toynbee has attempted to discover the geneses of civilizations, the factors influencing their development, and the character and processes of their growth. For this purpose he has distinguished altogether some twenty-one distinct "societies" and has examined these with reference to geography, climate, race, and social institutions. American experience is to be brought into the proper relation to universal experience; American history to be illuminated by world history; and the place of American society in the evolution of human society is to be established. Mr. Toynbee's concern, in these early volumes, is only incidentally with American history, and here his facts are not altogether accurate nor his generalizations sound, but everywhere he is provocative and stimulating. His learning is prodigious, his philosophy catholic, his elaborations fascinating; it is probable that his conclusions will be significant.

Lewis Mumford's *Technics and Civilization*² is another attempt to place American experience against the background of universal experience; here the approach is more limited both in time and in space. Mr. Mumford, whose thoughtful analyses of American literature (*The Golden Day*³) and American art (*Sticks and Stones*⁴) are familiar to most students, has here tried to discover the relation between technology and civilization with particular reference to the new technology of the hydro-electric era. It was Henry Adams who found in the dynamo the symbol of modern civilization as the Virgin was the symbol of medieval, and Mumford has elaborated this suggestion with originality and boldness. A considerable part of his study is devoted to an analysis of the anti-social consequences of the application of power and of machinery to the civilization of the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries; a new source

¹ Oxford University Press. (Unless otherwise noted, all books were published in 1934.)

² Harcourt, Brace & Co.

³ Republished this year by W. W. Norton in the White Oak Library.

⁴ Republished this year by W. W. Norton in the White Oak Library.

of power and a new technology, he believes, offers hope of a more humane and a more intelligent order of society.

Few historians of our generation have made more important contributions to the interpretation and the teaching of American history than has Charles A. Beard, but with the publication of *The Idea of National Interest*⁵ and *The Open Door at Home*,⁶ he has for the first time boldly assumed that responsibility which belongs ideally to the scholar in the republic but which is so rarely embraced. In the first of these volumes Beard has examined the concept of national interest, in the second he has attempted to formulate a policy of national interest; it is probable that the repercussions of these volumes will reach far beyond academic circles. If Beard ever pretended to a shining objectivity, he has here abandoned all such pretence, and not only for himself but on behalf of the historical profession. He has boldly assumed a pragmatic position, confessed that it is the function of the scholar to influence and to guide society, and admitted that this position requires that the historian embrace a philosophy and accept some standard of values—a conclusion to which the Commission on the Social Studies has also arrived.⁷ *The Idea of National Interest* is primarily valuable as an interpretation of our historic foreign policy. The term "national honor" or "national interest" has appeared with monotonous regularity in American state papers, and the idea of national interest has penetrated very deeply into the national psychology. Mr. Beard set for himself the task of discovering the meaning of the term and of tracing the consequences of the idea. This was the task of the historian; and it was performed with Beard's customary thoroughness and incisiveness. Not content with this piece of historical research, Beard announced a vigorous criticism of the traditional idea and of the policies which were posited upon it, and he submitted evidence that the policy of economic imperialism was both unprofitable and unwise. But if American foreign policy, more particularly as practiced in the last generation, is unwise, what is the wise policy for the nation to adopt? This question Beard has made bold to answer in *The Open Door at Home*. Here, after a preliminary argument on the duties and responsibilities of the historian, he has examined successively the various theories and practices of foreign policy that have commanded support: the industrial, the agrarian, the fascist, the communist, the international. He has found all of them wanting, illogical in theory and ineffective in fact. His own solution is economic autarchy, controlled by enlightened self-interest, directed to the well-being of the common man and largely immune from the threat of foreign entanglements and from wars.

Mr. Beard's approach to history is economic, but he has not attempted to dress history in an economic straitjacket. Other students, not burdened by his learning nor chastened by his scholarship, have been less cautious. Lewis Corey's *Decline of American Capitalism*⁸ is a full-fledged effort to apply the Marxian dialectic to American history. Mr. Corey has traced, with impressive statistics, the accommodation of American economics to the prophecies of Karl Marx, and he argues the imminent collapse of capitalism. But for all his statistical realism, Corey has written in a social and

⁵ Macmillan Co.

⁶ Macmillan Co.

⁷ *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission: Report of the Commission on the Social Studies*. See also, Charles A. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Studies in Relation to Objectives of Instruction*. Charles Scribner's Sons.

⁸ Covici, Friede Inc.

psychological vacuum: the figures are accurate enough and the logic is plausible, but it is difficult to see how the familiar American fits into the picture. Matthew Josephson's interpretation of recent American history is less strained but no less captious. *The Robber Barons*⁹ is a chronicle of the activities of the great American capitalists in the two generations following Appomattox. The title tells the story, the picture is one of unrelieved blackness, and Josephson has proved too much. Granted his contention that a small group of ruthless capitalists gutted the resources of the nation for their own aggrandizement, we still want to know how it happened that this situation arose and that it was tolerated. Josephson's picture is all surface, and the technique is too easy.

III

No historian of our generation has contributed more to the understanding of the Colonial period of American history than has Charles McLean Andrews. Through his own writings, and through the writings of his students, he has succeeded in establishing the obvious but neglected fact that the American colonies were part of a world empire and that the proper point of view from which to trace their development, is the imperial. He has now undertaken to traverse the whole field of colonial history, and the first volume of *The Colonial Period of American History*¹⁰ is a masterly survey of the English background and of colonial development to approximately the middle of the seventeenth century. Mr. Andrews has not confined his attention to those mainland colonies which subsequently became the United States; the colonization and early development of Bermuda, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland is for the first time adequately related to the expansion of England in the seventeenth century and to the history of the mainland colonies in New England and Virginia. This volume is characterized by those qualities which have distinguished Professor Andrews: a scholarship rich and exact, a talent for bold generalization, freshness and originality, and a style that is always lucid and sometimes brilliant.

Professor Andrews has not only established his own interpretation of American colonial history, he has trained a body of students to illuminate that interpretation with further research. Ralph Greenlee Lounsbury's *British Fisheries at Newfoundland, 1634-1763*¹¹ is designed "to throw new light on an obscure and little understood phase of British overseas enterprise." It seeks to explain the unique position of Newfoundland in the history of English expansion and the importance of the fisheries as a source of national wealth and as a training school for seamen. Isabel MacBeath Calder's *New Haven Colony*¹² is a history of the "strictest of Puritan commonwealths." "More than any other colony," says Miss Calder, "it represented the goal toward which the most orthodox wing of the Puritan party was striving." Completely dominated by the ultra-conservative Puritan theocracy, unrestricted by royal charter, the New Haven colony served as an experimental laboratory for the application of Puritan political and social ideas; the collapse of "Christ's Kingdom" in the new world Miss Calder regards as not only inevitable but on the whole fortunate.

Two obscure phases of the economic history of the colonial period are illuminated by Cyrus Harrell Karraker's *Hispaniola Treasure*¹³ and Earl J. Hamilton's *American*

⁹ Harcourt, Brace & Co.

¹⁰ Yale University Press.

¹¹ Yale University Press.

¹² Yale University Press.

¹³ University of Pennsylvania Press.

Treasure and the Price Revolution in Spain.¹⁴ Mr. Morais' monograph on *Deism in Eighteenth Century America*¹⁵ traces the progress of deism from 1713 to 1805 with particular reference to its European background and its class character. Mr. Morais analyzes organized deism and the evangelical forces that put it to rout, but he does not adequately explain that curious change whereby, early in the nineteenth century, orthodox New England became the stronghold of religious liberalism and the deistic south the citadel of orthodoxy. Nor does John Moffatt Mecklin's *Story of American Dissent*¹⁶ throw any light on this problem; its picture of religious heterodoxy is narrow in scope and is marred by a bitter and uncritical hostility to what he chooses to consider Puritanism. The intellectual approach to our colonial history is illuminated by the second volume of Preserved Smith's monumental *History of Modern Culture*.¹⁷ This survey of the Enlightenment embraces the whole of western civilization, and places American cultural development in its proper relation to its European background. Of particular interest to students of American history are the chapters on historiography, education, and religion.

The story of geographical exploration belongs necessarily to world history, but it inevitably embraces the American continents and even where it concerns other parts of the globe it illuminates, by comparison and by contrast, American experience. One of the most notable of recent coöperative projects is the *Pioneer Histories* designed "to provide broad surveys of the great migrations of European peoples for purposes of trade, conquest and settlement, into non-European continents." J. B. Brebner's *Explorers of North America, 1492-1806*¹⁸ tells the story of the opening up of the new continent by explorers, missionaries, soldiers, and fur-traders from Columbus to Lewis and Clark. The narrative is remarkably complete, integrated, and lively. From Irving and Prescott to Cunningham-Graham, historians have confessed the fascination of the melodrama of the Spanish conquest of America; Frederick Alexander Kirkpatrick's *Spanish Conquistadores*¹⁹ recounts the familiar story of Cortez and Pizarro and Balboa with brilliance and with restraint. Edgar Prestage's *Portuguese Pioneers*²⁰ has several chapters of interest to students of American history, and Eric Walker's *The Great Trek*²¹ furnishes important data for the study of the comparative history of the American frontier.

In *To the North*²² Jeanette Mirsky has compiled a history of Arctic explorations from ancient times to the near-present; her most important contribution is a comprehensive appreciation of Russian explorations in the North. Nellis Crouse has limited his investigations to one glamorous chapter of exploration—the *Search for the Northwest Passage*,²³ a search which contributed immensely to the knowledge of geography and to the opening up of the American continent. More popular in character is J. Leslie Mitchell's *Earth Conquerors*,²⁴ a biographical survey of the unrolling of the map; of the nine earth conquerors whom Mitchell celebrates, four belong to American history:

¹⁴ Harvard University Press.

¹⁵ Columbia University Press.

¹⁶ Harcourt, Brace & Co.

¹⁷ Henry Holt & Co.

¹⁸ Macmillan Co.

¹⁹ Macmillan Co.

²⁰ Macmillan Co.

²¹ Macmillan Co.

²² Viking Press.

²³ Columbia University Press.

²⁴ Simon and Schuster.

Lief Ericsson, Columbus, Cabeza de Vaca, and Bering. Esse Hathaway's *Romance of the American Map*²⁵ is a simple narrative designed for younger readers, and the emphasis is upon the personal and the dramatic aspects of exploration.

In a recent compilation of *Documents of American History*²⁶ the editor lamented the paucity of readily available sources for the study of social history. In this connection students should welcome the publication, by the newly organized Legal History Society, of the *Proceedings of the Maryland Court of Appeals*²⁷ covering the period from 1700 to 1790. Equally valuable are the *Records of the Suffolk County Court, 1671-1680*,²⁸ edited by Samuel Eliot Morison and Zechariah Chafee for the Colonial Society of Massachusetts. Other source material for the study of colonial history is to be found in Geoffrey M. Shipton's continuation of *Sibley's Harvard Graduates*²⁹ for the period 1690-1700; in Harry J. Carman and Rexford G. Tugwell's edition of Jared Eliot's *Essays upon Field Husbandry in New England*,³⁰ and in Herbert Eugene Bolton's edition of *Font's Complete Diary*,³¹ a chronicle of the founding of San Francisco.

IV

Recent celebrations of the sesqui-centennial of the Declaration of Independence and the bicentennial of Washington's birth seem to have exhausted interest in the American Revolution, and Allan French's *First Year of the American Revolution*³² stands almost alone as a contribution to that chapter of our history. It is in every respect a notable book. Mr. French is not concerned with the causes, underlying or immediate, of the Revolution, but he does find space to dispose of the economic interpretation with an inexcusable high-mindedness. But as military history the book leaves nothing to be desired; it is astonishingly thorough, critical, and impartial, and French has not failed to integrate the social and economic background in England and in America with military events. Several biographies describe special phases of the history of the Revolution. John Clement Fitzpatrick's *George Washington Himself*³³ purports to be "a common-sense biography"; it is based upon a more extensive body of documentary material than any previous biography, but it is marred by certain moralistic attitudes and assumptions. More valuable is Stephen Decatur's *Private Affairs of George Washington*,³⁴ a fascinating revelation of the daily life and interests of the first president written chiefly from the records of his secretary, Tobias Lear. Nathan Goodman's *Benjamin Rush*³⁵ rescues from undeserved obscurity one of the most attractive figures of the Revolutionary period. Scientist, scholar, patriot, Dr. Rush played a significant part in the revolutionary movement and was one of the intellectual leaders of the new nation. Mr. Goodman's recreation of this versatile doctor is an admirable piece of work, as lively as it is learned. John Walton Caughey's study of the adminis-

²⁵ Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Co.

²⁶ Crofts & Co.

²⁷ The American Historical Association.

²⁸ *Collections* of the Colonial Society of Massachusetts, vols. XXIX, XXX.

²⁹ Harvard University Press. Published for the Massachusetts Historical Society.

³⁰ Columbia University Studies in the History of American Agriculture, Number 1. Columbia University Press.

³¹ University of California Press.

³² Houghton Mifflin Co.

³³ Bobbs-Merrill Co.

³⁴ Houghton Mifflin Co.

³⁵ University of Pennsylvania Press.

trative and military career of *Bernardo de Galvez in Louisiana*⁸⁶ describes the participation of Spain in the Revolution in the West and throws light on some phases of the diplomacy of 1783.

V

What is peculiar about American institutions has resulted largely from the impact of an American environment upon European man. The influence of environment upon these institutions was, perhaps, more immediate and more effective in the period from the end of the Revolution to the beginnings of the industrial era than at any other time. A realization of this accounts, in part, for the fact that students have been so largely interested in the social history of this period: when Henry Adams set out to formulate laws of history on the basis of American experience, it was the Jeffersonian era that he chose for his laboratory, and that he failed to formulate such laws does not detract from the significance of his choice. To what extent the frontier actually molded institutions, to what extent these institutions were an inheritance, is a problem that has long fascinated historians. The problem is squarely presented and argued in a little volume of essays that should command the attention of every student, *Sources of Culture in the Middle West*.⁸⁷ Four historians here discuss various phases of the cultural inheritance of the middle west with a view to discovering not only the relative importance of inheritance and environment, but the mechanism whereby each is made effective. Mr. Benjamin Wright insists that the democratic influence of the frontier has been grossly exaggerated; Craven examines the technique of the advance of civilization into the Old Northwest; Hicks analyzes the development of that civilization in the period since the Civil War, and Hansen argues the necessity of a more critical study of the social history of nineteenth century Europe. "American social history," writes Mr. Hansen, "cannot be written until the social history of Modern Europe has been written . . . When are we going to have comparative social history? When we do we can answer the question: what parts of middle western civilization came from abroad? what parts from the East? what arose from the native soil?"

One chapter, at least, of the social history of the middle west has been thoroughly explored. In his *Civilization of the Old Northwest, 1788-1812*,⁸⁸ Beverley Bond has analyzed in masterly fashion and with impressive scholarship the background of the colonization of the old northwest, the importance of land speculation and of land administration, the establishment of government and the development of political and legal institutions, the solution of the Indian problem, the character of pioneer agriculture, trade and industry, and the beginnings of cultural life on the frontier.

Mr. Bond is more concerned with the economic bases of social life than with its surface manifestations. Not so E. Douglas Branch, whose *Sentimental Years, 1836-1860*⁸⁹ is a breezy and impressionistic picture in the manner of Minnigerode's *Fabulous Forties* or Beer's *Mauve Decade*. It is pleasant reading, and its pages will doubtless point many a moral and its anecdotes adorn many a tale, but it is marred by frivolity and superficiality, and its central thesis, indicated in the title, is both debatable and irrelevant. A far more substantial, if more specialized, analysis of social development is to be found in volumes five and six of the great coöperative *History of New York*

⁸⁶ University of California Press.

⁸⁷ Edited by Dixon Ryan Fox. The Appleton-Century Historical Essays. Appleton-Century Co.

⁸⁸ Macmillan Co.

⁸⁹ Appleton-Century Co.

State.⁴⁰ These volumes present the history of the Empire State from the close of the Revolutionary period to the middle of the nineteenth century, and they embrace such important developments as the conquest of the west and the north by land speculators, settlers, and traders, the construction of turnpikes and of the Erie canal, the laying of the first railroads, the beginnings of the industrial revolution and the rise of the factory system, the growth of political democracy and the impact of the reform movements of the "sentimental years." Written by specialists, these volumes sustain the admirable scholarship of the earlier volumes of the *History*, and justify comparison with the famous *Centennial History of Illinois* which set a standard for state histories which has not yet been surpassed.

We do not often think of pictures as source material but William Murrell has assembled in his *History of American Graphic Humor*⁴¹ a collection of documents that is illustrative in more than the obvious sense of the word. This volume is actually a compilation of American cartoons from the Revolution to the Civil War, and it reveals the possibilities of a body of source material that has been too much neglected by students of American life. Judged by the standards of Nast, Davenport or Kirby, the cartoonists of the early years of the Republic were crude and obvious, yet they describe American society with some degree of accuracy and their efforts thrown some light on the character of American humor.

Some years ago Constance Rourke gave us an analysis of *American Humor*,⁴² original in conception, brilliant in interpretation, and charming in presentation; her biography of *Davy Crockett*⁴³ furnishes us additional material for the understanding of American character. She has not been interested in the details of Crockett's career, but she has used Crockett as a vehicle for the telling of tall tales and folk-lore, has used him as a symbol and a legend, has accepted him as the fabulous figure that he is in American mythology. The last decade has witnessed a heartening progress in the appreciation of what is most distinctively American in literature, and the collection of folk-lore and ballad and song goes rapidly forward. For this Miss Rourke is in part responsible, but many years before the appearance of *American Humor* John Lomax published a slight volume of *Cowboy Songs* that attracted considerable attention. With the assistance of his son, Alan, he has now given us an imposing collection of *American Ballads and Folk Songs*⁴⁴ which should furnish the historian with more valuable illustrative material than a whole shelf of conventional documents. Eventually some historian will interpret to us the history of the American people through the stories they have told and the songs they have sung as well as through the books they have written.

VI

It is not a little curious that the triumph and collapse of industrialism should have induced among students a revisionist attitude toward the verdict of Appomattox. The wisdom of that verdict was once taken for granted even below the Mason and Dixon line, but thoughtful men now are far from sure that the defeat of agrarianism and regionalism represented progress. Nor are historians willing to regard the various steps

⁴⁰ Edited by Alexander C. Flick. Vol. V, *Conquering the Wilderness*; Vol. VI, *The Age of Reform*. Columbia University Press.

⁴¹ The Whitney Museum.

⁴² Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1931.

⁴³ Harcourt, Brace & Co.

⁴⁴ Macmillan Co.

of that process as predestined and inevitable: a more critical scrutiny of the causes of wars in general has extended itself to this particular war; a more sceptical attitude toward the value of a conquered peace has inspired a new interpretation of American reconstruction; a more realistic understanding of the bases of politics has discovered an economic negro in the sectional woodpile. Even the titles of recent volumes are eloquent of the disillusionment: James Truslow Adams has called his history of sectionalism *America's Tragedy*, George Fort Milton has entitled his study of the decade of the fifties, *Stephen A. Douglas and the Needless War*, and three recent books on reconstruction have been called *The Tragic Era*, *The Age of Hate*, and *The Dreadful Decade*.

*America's Tragedy*⁴⁵ is a history of the sectional conflict between the North and the South over the slavery issue. It makes no pretense to originality or to laborious research, but states with clarity and economy the essential character of that conflict and its significance in our history. Mr. Adams's use of memoirs and letters is especially skillful, and his narrative is smooth and graceful. Particularly noteworthy is his recognition that "the North did not know how to live," that its society was "formless" and that it ignored "the question of what success was for, what life itself was for," whereas the Southern way of life was "based on human rather than material values." This is a position which was stated some years ago by the authors of *I'll Take My Stand*; it is one which has recently found wide support among critics and novelists as well as historians.

A more elaborate if not more perspicacious examination of the social background of sectionalism is to be found in Arthur C. Cole's *The Irrepressible Conflict*.⁴⁶ Like the other volumes of the *History of American Life* series, this book, which embraces the years from 1850 to 1865, confines itself to the non-political aspects of American social life. "His narrative reminds us," remark the editors, "that people courted and married, went about their business, read and wrote books, laughed, played, and prayed, unaware that hosts of young men in blue and gray would soon confront each other on bloody battle-fields." There are chapters on agriculture, labor, and immigration, on education, literature, and religion, and the psychological background of the war is given thoughtful consideration. Military events are necessarily excluded, but four chapters tell the story of life behind the lines, North and South, and the critical essay on authorities is suggestive and discriminating.

In *The Eve of Conflict: Stephen A. Douglas and the Needless War*,⁴⁷ George Fort Milton has challenged the assumption in the title of Cole's volume. The Civil War, he insists, was not an irrepressible conflict but a needless one. It should have been avoided, and, says Mr. Milton, it could have been avoided had the nation but followed the leadership of that much maligned statesman, Stephen A. Douglas. More particularly Mr. Milton argues that the war was the product of emotionalism in politics, that it occurred because there was no adequate machinery whereby the common sense of the majority of the people might be made to prevail over the ambitions and dogmas of fanatics, North and South. The Civil War, says Mr. Milton, was the work of minorities; of the abolitionist minority in the North that insisted upon injecting abstract morals into politics, of the slave-holding minority in the south that made a fetish of doctrinaire rights, of the office-holding minority that was willing to smash the Democratic party and the Union in order to retain the spoils of office. Mr. Milton's most important con-

⁴⁵ Chas. Scribner's Sons.

⁴⁶ Macmillan Co.

⁴⁷ Houghton Mifflin Co.

tribution is his exhaustive and masterly analysis of the political maneuvers of the administration between 1858 and 1860 which culminated in the Charleston convention. "Except for the weight of the Administration influence in Southern Democratic Conventions," he concludes, "together with the President's prostitution of his office and power to corrupt and seduce Northern delegates, Douglas would almost certainly have been nominated at Charleston." And had Douglas alone confronted Lincoln, "it seems almost too plain for argument that the former would have become President. In that event there would have occurred no immediate secession or appeal to arms."

Two monographs throw additional light on the vexed question of the causes and technique of secession, and both of them lend support to the point of view, now widely held, that the majority of the southern people were opposed to secession. Henry Thomas Shanks' *Secession Movement in Virginia, 1847-1861*⁴⁸ notes the conservative character of Virginia politics and the absence of adequate leadership in time of crisis, and emphasizes the extent to which John Brown's raid on Harper's Ferry released emotions difficult to control. James W. Patton's *Unionism and Reconstruction in Tennessee*⁴⁹ covers a somewhat later period, but abundantly establishes the strength of the Union sentiment in the Volunteer State.

That old fire-eater Edmund Ruffin lamented that the Yankees were not only to make the laws for the South, but to write her history, yet the cause which was lost on the battlefields has been all but won in the libraries. It is perhaps in accordance with the law of compensation that the case for the South should have been presented so much more skillfully than that for the North. Surely no Northerner, not even Lincoln, has had raised to him so noble a literary monument as Douglas Southall Freeman's *Robert E. Lee*.⁵⁰ This superb biography has every merit: it is thorough and scholarly, it is critical and impartial, it is sympathetic and humane, it is written with clarity, with vigor, and with beauty. "I have been privileged," writes Mr. Freeman, "to live, as it were, for more than a decade, in the company of a great gentleman," and every page of the four imposing volumes is eloquent of that association. This biography has those qualities which we associate with Lee himself: dignity, honesty, integrity, humility, magnanimity. These volumes constitute a history of the war in Virginia, but Lee is everywhere in command. Dr. Freeman's accounts of battles and campaigns will recommend themselves to the lay reader; they achieve clarity without over-simplification and they explain much heretofore obscure or misunderstood. Every teacher, too, will be interested in those chapters which describe Lee as President of Washington College, interested in the association of the most advanced educational ideas with the most conservative temper. Above all, Freeman's biography is a tribute to the society which produced and supported Lee, to a society which, as Adams noted, placed human values above material values.

Judge Winston, the biographer of Johnson and of Davis, has likewise tried his skillful hand on Lee,⁵¹ and his interpretation is an admirable one, though wanting in that critical acuteness that we find in Freeman's volumes. A much less attractive figure is delineated, critically and unsympathetically, in Howard Swiggett's *The Rebel Raider*,⁵² a life of John Hunt Morgan. A spectacular and unstable character, Morgan represented

⁴⁸ Richmond: Garrett & Massie.

⁴⁹ University of North Carolina Press.

⁵⁰ Chas. Scribner's Sons.

⁵¹ William Morrow & Co.

⁵² Bobbs-Merrill.

those qualities of individualism and recklessness which cost the Confederacy so dear, and against which Lee himself struggled, not always with success. Lack of discipline was, indeed, one of the chief weaknesses of the Confederacy, and it was revealed not only in the conduct of soldiers, but of politicians as well. The internal disintegration of the Confederacy, already familiar to us through the work of Owsley and Moore, is further illuminated in the monographs of George Lee Tatum and Ella Lonn. Tatum's *Disloyalty in the Confederacy*⁵³ tells a story that goes far to explain the breakdown of 1864-1865, and Miss Lonn's *Salt as a Factor in the Confederacy*⁵⁴ reveals the far-reaching economic and social and even political consequences of the inadequate salt supply in the South.

The historians of the Union have been neither so active nor so persuasive as those of the Confederacy. Several biographers have recently attempted to enhance the military reputation of General Grant; none of them have been quite so unsuccessful as Colonel Robert R. McCormick, whose *Ulysses S. Grant, The Great Soldier of America*⁵⁵ is both ill-conceived and badly executed. To the task of a military historian McCormick brings a knowledge of modern warfare and a great deal of enthusiasm, but his familiarity with the history of the Civil War is scant, and his adulation of Grant tempts him into the most absurd exaggerations. Professor William S. Myers has been somewhat more successful in his rehabilitation of *General McClellan*,⁵⁶ but even his skill and sincerity cannot make of "Little Mac" either an attractive person or a great soldier. William Brigance's study of that brilliant constitutional lawyer, *Jeremiah Sullivan Black*⁵⁷ is a disappointing piece of work, valuable for its analysis of the notorious Alta Vela episode, but otherwise uninspired.

Three volumes of source material throw considerable light on the social and political background of the war. The letters of *Jane Grey Swisshelm*,⁵⁸ lecturer, editor, war nurse, and crusading reformer, are filled with the gossip and rumor of war-time Washington and reveal much of the psychology of Northern radicalism and the opposition to the President; the lengthy introduction by Arthur J. Larsen is most satisfactory. M. W. Disher has edited the diary of *The Cowells in America*⁵⁹—a commentary on life in the theatre and music halls during the Civil War years which contains some vivid pictures of public figures and of incidents of military life. More important is Howard K. Beale's edition of the *Diary of Edward Bates, 1859-1866*.⁶⁰ One of the most prominent of the candidates for the Republican nomination in 1860, Bates was consoled for his failure by appointment as attorney-general in Lincoln's cabinet, and proved to be an able and loyal subordinate. His *Diary* has neither the fullness nor the interest of the famous Welles Diary, but it supplements that journal on many points, and contains much of value for the history of the political and even of the social life of the Civil War period.

There are many kinds of historical novels: those written after the style of Sir Walter Scott are of comparatively little value to the student of history; those written

⁵³ University of North Carolina Press.

⁵⁴ New York: Walter Neale, Publisher. All inquiries should be directed to the author.

⁵⁵ Appleton-Century Co.

⁵⁶ Appleton-Century Co.

⁵⁷ University of Pennsylvania Press.

⁵⁸ Publications of the Minnesota Historical Society. Narratives and Documents, Volume II.

⁵⁹ Annual Report of the American Historical Association, 1930, Volume IV, The Government Printing Office.

⁶⁰ Oxford University Press.

in the spirit of Thackeray are often more illuminating than any formal histories. The two general types are familiar enough to students of American literature: S. Weir Mitchell illustrates the Scott formula; Miss Wharton and Miss Glasgow, the Thackeray. Sometimes the two formulas are successfully combined: both *Long Remember* and *So Red the Rose* are at once historical romances and comedies of manners. McKinley Kantor's *Long Remember*⁶¹ is a wonderfully successful recreation of the atmosphere and events of the battle of Gettysburg, a moving story that succeeds in being one of the great war novels of our literature without employing any of the claptrap of military stage-setting. In *So Red the Rose*⁶² Stark Young has evoked, with rare artistry, the charm of one phase of life in the ante-bellum South. The characters and setting of *So Red the Rose* are no more typical of the South than are those of Faulkner's *Sanctuary* or Caldwell's *Tobacco Road*, but Young's realism is far more plausible. The men and women who stray so bewilderingly but so graciously across the pages of this book are authentic figures. Mr. Young's South was achieved only in a fragmentary fashion, but the ideal was there, and it is important that we understand and appreciate the ideal.

VII

The renaissance of provincialism is assuredly one of the most significant intellectual phenomena of our time. It discloses a deep dissatisfaction with the social and cultural consequences of nationalism, of centralization, of standardization; it betrays a profound disillusionment about the rootless, disassociated, undisciplined life that obtains in the "Middletowns" of the country. It rests upon values that are permanent, positive, and genuine; upon a feeling for nature and the discipline of nature, upon a recognition of the importance of family, upon a sense of responsibility to a community, upon the pleasures of familiarity of homely things, of idiom, of manners, of food.

This new provincialism is perhaps most abundantly expressed in imaginative literature: the revival of regionalism in fiction and poetry is too familiar to require elaboration, and that the last year showed no ebb in the flood of local color novels. Maritime Maine was represented by Rachel Field's *God's Pocket*,⁶³ Robert Coffin's *Lost Paradise*,⁶⁴ and Mary Ellen Chase's *Mary Peters*,⁶⁵ and Cape Cod by Elizabeth Reynard's *The Narrow Land*.⁶⁶ New Hampshire was described in Cornelius Weygandt's *White Hills*,⁶⁷ Vermont by Elliot Merrick's *From This Hill Look Down*,⁶⁸ while the publication of the collected stories of Rowland Robinson⁶⁹ confirmed the interest in New England folkways. Two books chronicled life among the Pennsylvania Dutch: that skillful showman, Joseph Hergesheimer, has returned, in *The Foolscap Rose*,⁷⁰ to the style and the background of the *Three Black Pennys*, and Thames Williamson's *D is For Dutch*⁷¹ explores the superstitions and folkways of the farmers of the Dutch country.

Almost every part of the middle west has its own literary historian, and the shift, in recent years, from the acrid criticism of *Main Street* to the warm appreciation of

⁶¹ Coward-McCann, Inc.

⁶² Chas. Scribner's Sons.

⁶³ Macmillan Co.

⁶⁴ Macmillan Co.

⁶⁵ Macmillan Co.

⁶⁶ Houghton Mifflin Co.

⁶⁷ Henry Holt & Co.

⁶⁸ Brattleboro, Vermont: Stephen Daye Press.

⁶⁹ The Centennial Edition of the Works of Rowland E. Robinson. Rutland, Vermont: Tuttle Co.

⁷⁰ A. A. Knopf.

⁷¹ Harcourt, Brace & Co.

The Folks is significant. Ruth Suckow's *The Folks*⁷² gives a gentler picture of the Iowa country than is to be found in her earlier *Iowa Interiors*. Arthur Pound's *Once a Wilderness*,⁷³ Mildred Walker's *Fireweed*,⁷⁴ and David DeJong's *Belly Fulla Straw*,⁷⁵ describes the early and the later Michigan. In *The Crowded Hill*⁷⁶ LeRoy MacLeod continues his annals of the Wabash Valley which he inaugurated with *Years of Peace and Three Steeples*. Only in the tragic pages of Josephine Johnson's *Now in November*⁷⁷ do we find some of the bitterness that burned in the pages of Hamlin Garland and Ed Howe. That note of despair which was once sounded in *The Spoon River Anthology* seems now to be voiced by the spokesmen of the far west—by Vardis Fisher and Robert Cantwell and Robinson Jeffers, and what they write is probably no more representative of the west than are the novels of Faulkner and Caldwell of the South. If Stark Young describes the best of the Old South and Faulkner the worst of the New, the evolution of the southern middle class from the Civil War to the present is most adequately told by T. S. Stribling, whose *Unfinished Cathedral*⁷⁸ completes the trilogy begun in *The Forge* and *The Store*. Mr. Stribling presents no such social panorama as is to be found in the novels of Ellen Glasgow, but his volumes have a literal rather than artistic accuracy that is suggestive to the social historian.

It is the Southerners who have been most active and most eloquent in presenting the cause of regionalism, and if their argument has had the defects of special pleading, they have at least added to our appreciation of the folk-lore and the sociology of the South. Though nothing published in the course of the year has the literary appeal of *I'll Take My Stand* or the historical value of Rupert Vance's *Human Geography of the South*, a number of less pretentious works have fulfilled the promise of these volumes. Carl Cramer's *Stars Fell on Alabama*⁷⁹ is a curious and effective but over-sentimental retelling of the folk-lore of the deep South; M. E. Sheppard's *Carolina Blue Ridge*,⁷⁹ C. M. Wilson's *Backwoods America*,⁸⁰ and Vance Randolph's *Ozark Outdoors*,⁸¹ describe life among the more isolated small farmers and poor whites of the South in terms of their social and cultural activities; E. W. Parks' *Charles Egbert Craddock*⁸² and G. C. Knight's *James Lane Allen*⁸³ rescue from near-oblivion two representatives of the local-color school of the last generation. An ambitious attempt to interpret the whole of contemporary Southern life can be found in a symposium edited, appropriately enough, by W. T. Couch, *Culture in the South*.⁸⁴ Of the thirty contributors to this symposium only two are members of that group which sponsored *I'll Take My Stand*, and *Culture in the South* is largely free from the sentimental nostalgia of that earlier volume. Every phase of life in the South today is described in Couch's symposium, and by specialists: Ramsdell and Milton write on politics, Mitchell and Murchison analyze industry, Clarence Poe discusses farming, Miss Herring the mill worker,

⁷² Farrar & Rinehart.

⁷³ Reynal & Hitchcock.

⁷⁴ Harcourt, Brace & Co.

⁷⁵ A. A. Knopf.

⁷⁶ Reynal & Hitchcock.

⁷⁷ Simon & Schuster.

⁷⁸ Doubleday, Doran & Co.

^{79a} Farrar & Rinehart.

⁷⁹ University of North Carolina Press.

⁸⁰ University of North Carolina Press.

⁸¹ Vanguard Press.

⁸² University of North Carolina Press.

⁸³ University of North Carolina Press.

⁸⁴ University of North Carolina Press.

Couch the negro, and half a dozen authors interpret southern arts and letters. This book collects material essential for an understanding of the present-day South, but it advances no program and pleads no philosophy.

Some years ago F. J. Turner pointed out the value of the West as a laboratory for the discovery of those laws which govern the development of social and political institutions, yet it is the dramatic rather than the institutional aspects of western history that attract the attention of historians. It may be that the concept of western history as a unit is misleading, and that a subdivision which adapts itself to the natural and the historical distinctions of the west will be more fruitful of results. In any event the historians of the Southwest have made notable efforts to formulate the laws which control the development of that section. Though nothing produced during the past year approaches in value W. P. Webb's *Great Plains*, students will not fail to examine Ross Calvin's *Sky Determines*,⁸⁵ an attempt to explain the history of the Southwest in terms of climate and geography. It is a nice question to what extent the skies do still determine the character of an industrial and scientific society; certainly Buckle's geographical determinism, which Calvin in large part accepts, is too extreme for the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. In *The Comanche Barrier to South Plains Settlement*,⁸⁶ R. N. Richardson has made a laboratory experiment in one phase of western expansion, and explained how it was that the Comanches were able to resist or deflect, for a century and a half, invasion of their lands. The whole history of the southwest can be conveniently found in R. N. Richardson and C. C. Rister's *The Greater Southwest*.⁸⁷

The study of trade routes and transportation has always interested the historian, indeed that brilliant but forgotten Brooks Adams tried to formulate a philosophy or history on the basis of trade routes. Few phases of western history have been more thoroughly explored than this, and the history of communication from the Santa Fé trail to the Great Northern Railroad is recorded in an imposing library of monograph and biography. We have already noted Matthew Josephson's interpretation of the railroad builders and financiers who exploited the resources of the west for speculative purposes. Equally popular, but even more uncritical, is Glenn C. Quiett's *They Built the West*⁸⁸—a dramatic account of the building of railroads and the establishment of cities in the west which leaves out the social background and ignores social consequences. Far more valuable than these popularizations is Paul Gate's careful study of the *Illinois Central and its Colonization Work*.⁸⁹ As colonizing agencies the railroads performed something of the same function for the west as did the joint stock companies for the Atlantic seaboard and the land companies for the trans-Appalachian region. The colonizing work of the Illinois Central is important because it conditioned the settlement of Illinois in the fifties and the sixties and because it established precedents that the trans-continental railroads were to follow in the post-war years. An important chapter in the history of transportation on the inland waters is described in Mildred Hartsough's *From Canoe to Steel Barge on the Upper Mississippi*.⁹⁰ Alvin Harlow, whose earlier volumes on *Old Postbags* and *Old Towpaths* told the story of the mail service and of the canal era, has given us, in *Old Waybills*,⁹¹ a fascinating history of the express

⁸⁵ Macmillan Co.

⁸⁶ Arthur H. Clark Co.

⁸⁷ Arthur H. Clark Co.

⁸⁸ Appleton-Century Co.

⁸⁹ Harvard University Press.

⁹⁰ University of Minnesota Press.

⁹¹ Appleton-Century Co.

business. Mr. Harlow's volumes are suggestive and discursive rather than thorough, but they are filled with obscure information and with curious anecdotes and are embellished by contemporary prints.

The thrill of Indian warfare and the glamour of the mining kingdom continues to fascinate students and the literature on these subjects grows more voluminous, if not more discriminating, every year. Paul Wellman's *Death on the Prairie*⁹² is a convenient summary of Indian warfare from the Sioux outbreak in 1862 to the nineties. It adds nothing to our knowledge of this unhappy chapter in American history, but it does emphasize the truth of President Arthur's severe indictment of our Indian policy in his annual message of 1881. Frederic Van de Water's biography of General Custer, *Glory Hunter*,⁹³ too, substantiates the justice of this indictment, for in these pages the swash-buckling glory hunter cuts a very sorry figure. The book has excited considerable controversy which may not be without effect in dramatizing the mismanagement of our Indian affairs. Additional light is thrown on the history of Custer and of Indian warfare by Stanley Vestal's *Warpath*,⁹⁴ the story of the "Fighting Sioux," which is a skillfully wrought autobiography of the famous Chief White Bull of the Minniconju Sioux. Mr. Vestal's *New Sources of Indian History, 1850-1891*,⁹⁵ is likewise devoted to the history of the Sioux, and presents source material heretofore unavailable. The University of Oklahoma Press, which has come to be the organ of Southwestern regionalism, has sponsored a number of other studies of Indian history. Among the most important of these are Grant Foreman's *Five Civilized Tribes*,⁹⁶ which continues his earlier studies, *Indians and Pioneers*, and *Advancing the Frontier*; Angie Debo's interesting and scholarly *Rise and Fall of the Choctaw Republic*,⁹⁷ and John Seger's *Early Days Among the Cheyenne and Arapahoe Indians*.⁹⁸

The literature of the mining kingdom is for the most part descriptive rather than interpretative. Two books recount again the romantic story of the forty-niners: Glasscock's *A Golden Highway*,⁹⁹ and Stillman's *Mother Lode*,¹⁰⁰ while Julian Dana's biography of *John Sutter*¹⁰¹ corrects many of the misconceptions about that incredible figure without making him less romantic or the story of Sutter's Gold less fabulous. The story of the Comstock lode has always exercised a peculiar fascination for students; even Mark Twain could not exaggerate its dramatic character, and when Charles H. Shinn wrote *The Story of the Mine* it turned out to be a chronicle of Comstock alone. To the library of books on this great bonanza two more volumes have been added: Miss Michelson's *Wonderlode of Silver and Gold*,¹⁰² and George Lyman's *Saga of the Comstock Lode*.¹⁰³ These volumes are designed for popular consumption; the institutional and economic history of the mining kingdom is still to be written.

One of the most important projects for the publication of source material is the *Overland to the Pacific Series*, edited by the late Archer B. Hulbert, and designed to tell the story of the westward movement in the words of the pioneers themselves. The

⁹² Macmillan Co.

⁹³ Bobbs-Merrill Co.

⁹⁴ Houghton Mifflin Co.

⁹⁵ University of Oklahoma Press.

⁹⁶ University of Oklahoma Press.

⁹⁷ University of Oklahoma Press.

⁹⁸ University of Oklahoma Press.

⁹⁹ Bobbs-Merrill Company.

¹⁰⁰ Harr-Wagner Publishing Co.

¹⁰¹ Press of the Pioneers.

¹⁰² Boston: Stratford Co.

¹⁰³ Scribner's.

source material is culled from original narratives, newspapers, and letters, and much of it has never before appeared. The series is projected in eight volumes; to the three which have previously appeared Hulbert has added *Iron Men and Saints Take the Oregon Trail*.¹⁰⁴ The central figure of this collection is "Oregon" Kelley, to whose propagandistic activities a good part of the volume is devoted. The "Journal of Nathaniel Wyeth" who led the first expedition along what later became the Oregon trail, letters from two scientists, John Ball and John Townsend, and Captain Lemuel Ford's "Journal of a Summer upon the Prairie," fill out the volume.

VIII

Educators and even historians assure us that a new world has come into existence in the last half century, but for all the emphasis upon the new social order and the eagerness of philosophers to interpret it to us, we still have to piece out its history from biographies and miscellaneous monographs. Political history, especially, has fallen into disrepute, but the most ambitious survey of American history since Appomattox is that projected in the *American Political Leaders Series*, edited by Professor Allan Nevins. Some ten volumes of this series have already appeared; two were added in the course of the year. Professor D. S. Muzzey did for the reputation of *James G. Blaine*¹⁰⁵ what scholarship and literary skill could do, but neither his learning nor his wit could rescue Blaine from indifference nor make him significant except as a type. Yet as a type Blaine is worth that discriminating attention which Muzzey addresses to him. He had brilliance, magnetism, eloquence, ability, every quality but integrity; for twenty years he was the symbol of triumphant Republicanism, the idol of millions of Americans. He was the incarnation of the party spirit, and any analysis of American psychology of the post-war generation must take him into account. If Blaine was a symbol, *Chester A. Arthur*¹⁰⁶ was an example, and George F. Howe has done a capital job in showing how illuminating such an example can be in explaining a quarter-century of machine politics. A mediocre figure, Arthur illustrates to us that divorce between politics and morals so characteristic of the post-war generation. It is a tribute to Howe's skill that he has been able to recreate the shadowy Arthur, to make both him and his meager activities interesting.

Both Blaine and Arthur learned the political ropes in the noisome school of Reconstruction, yet there were some who came through this school uncontaminated. Among the most notable of those who preserved their integrity at a time when integrity was a handicap was that old Roman, *George Frisbie Hoar*.¹⁰⁷ He has remembered his own career in one of the most interesting of our political autobiographies, and made the task of the biographer unusually difficult. Frederick Gillett, himself long active in politics, has been interested in Hoar chiefly as a political figure. To the interpretation of Hoar's political career Gillett brings understanding and sympathy; his admiration for Hoar is unbounded and his acquiescence in Hoar's undemocratic and ungenerous political philosophy is complete. The book is sketchy and uncritical, but it effectively recreates the character of one of the most striking figures in the politics of the last generation.

¹⁰⁴ *Overland to the Pacific*, Vol. IV. The Stewart Commission of Colorado College and the Denver Public Library.

¹⁰⁵ Dodd, Mead & Co.

¹⁰⁶ Dodd, Mead & Co.

¹⁰⁷ Houghton Mifflin Co.

Senator Hoar represented, after a fashion, the reform wing of the Republican party in New England. In this group, too, was that ubiquitous reformer and pamphleteer, Edward Atkinson whose biography has been written by Harold Williamson.¹⁰⁸ A business man, with wide interests in the textile mills and the insurance companies of New England, Atkinson meddled happily in tariff reform, civil service reform, and anti-imperialism; he was an old-fashioned liberal whose *laissez-faire* philosophy William Graham Sumner would have applauded. Bliss Perry has told the career of another Bostonian of similar character, Richard Henry Dana,¹⁰⁹ who generously sustained the family tradition of public service by his indefatigable labors for many reform movements.

A reformer of a different stamp, Louis Brandeis, is described by A. T. Mason in a biography necessarily incomplete. As a jurist Mr. Brandeis has often been bracketed with Mr. Justice Holmes, yet the difference between the two is important: perhaps it would not be an exaggeration to say that Mr. Holmes was a philosopher, Mr. Brandeis is a social philosopher. The greater part of Mr. Brandeis' life has been spent not on the bench but before the bar, and as counsel in many cases involving public policy he has established a reputation as a defender of public welfare. No one has contributed more to our understanding of the complicated character of modern business and banking, no one has more incisively exposed the malpractices of public utilities, and Mason's carefully documented study does full justice to the disinterested faithfulness of this great *Lawyer and Judge in the Modern State*.¹¹⁰

The society on whose behalf Mr. Brandeis fought is described in half a dozen volumes of autobiography and reminiscence which tell us more of the social changes in the last half century than do formal treatises. Cardinal O'Connell's *Recollections of Seventy Years*¹¹¹ not only portrays one of the most important figures in the American religious scene but tells something of the rise of the Catholic Church to its present dominant position. Willis J. Abbot is a newspaper man of wide experience, and his recollections, *Watching the World Go By*,¹¹² are valuable for the story of political campaigns and for the anecdotes of men long prominent in public life. In *Loose Leaves from a Busy Life*,¹¹³ Morris Hillquit gives us some random reminiscences of his own career in politics and in law and an informal history of the difficulties encountered by the Socialist party during the World War. A good part of Hillquit's support has come from New York's lower East Side, and this society is affectionately interpreted in Lillian Wald's *Windows on Henry Street*.¹¹⁴ Together with Jane Addams, Miss Wald has been largely responsible for the development of the settlement house idea in America, and Henry Street Settlement is one of our most famous and most admirable institutions. *Windows on Henry Street* continues the story of Miss Wald's earlier *House on Henry Street*; it covers the years since 1915, years of war and reconstruction and depression, and it tells a story of courage and faith. Equally important for an understanding of those immigrant groups with which Hillquit and Miss Wald have worked is Edward Corsi's history of Ellis Island, *In the Shadow of Liberty*.¹¹⁵ Mr. Corsi who

¹⁰⁸ Old Corner Book Store, Boston, Mass.

¹⁰⁹ Houghton Mifflin Co.

¹¹⁰ Princeton University Press.

¹¹¹ Houghton Mifflin Co.

¹¹² Little, Brown & Co.

¹¹³ Macmillan Co.

¹¹⁴ Little, Brown & Co.

¹¹⁵ Macmillan Co.

was the Commissioner of Immigration under President Hoover is himself an immigrant from Italy, and his approach to the problem of the immigrant is not merely an official one; his sympathies are with the newcomer, and he appreciates their problems and applauds their faith.

Source material of an entirely different character is to be found in E. E. Robinson's *The Presidential Vote, 1896-1932*.¹¹⁶ This invaluable volume gives in detail the presidential vote by state and by county; it is equipped with charts and maps and accompanied by an explanatory text. It would be well if similar statistical compilations could be made available for the earlier presidential contests.

IX

We have already noted the contribution of Beard toward the interpretation of American foreign policy. The history of that foreign policy remains to be written, but careful scholars are rapidly supplying for us the necessary documentary material and filling in the details. The dramatic story of our first great diplomatic achievement under the Constitution, the acquisition of Louisiana, has always attracted the attention of students, and the literature on various phases of the Louisiana purchase and the Mississippi question is enormous. Arthur P. Whitaker's *The Mississippi Question, 1795-1803*,¹¹⁷ is a continuation of his earlier *Spanish-American Frontier*; together the two volumes constitute a careful, critical, and brilliantly written analysis of the economic and diplomatic background of the Louisiana purchase so far as it involves Spain. The purpose of *The Mississippi Question* is to show how Spain lost her hold on Louisiana and how the United States fell heir to the province, but the theme is broad enough to include studies of trade and commerce, agriculture and manufacturing, social life, politics, war and intrigue, as well as diplomacy. E. W. Lyon's *Louisiana in French Diplomacy*¹¹⁸ emphasizes the French background of the Mississippi question, traces the continuity of French policy, and reveals the considerations which finally persuaded Napoleon to arrange for retrocession and then for sale.

That the "national interest" was served by the acquisition of Louisiana none will doubt; a more questionable conception of the idea of national interest is described by A. A. Ettinger in *The Mission to Spain of Pierre Soule*.¹¹⁹ One of the most aggressive of the imperialists of the mid-nineteenth century, it was the ambition of Soule to acquire for the United States, and for the South, the Pearl of the Antilles, and to this effort he devoted himself in that mission which culminated in the fiasco of the Ostend Manifesto. The problem of Cuba was to vex American politics and diplomacy for another half century, and even the Spanish War but changed the nature of that problem. The psychological background of the Spanish war is revealed in J. E. Wisan's *Cuban Crisis as Reflected in the New York Press, 1895-1898*.¹²⁰ This volume constitutes a suggestive laboratory experiment in the problem of the creation and control of public opinion and the relation of public opinion to war, and it admirably supplements the contributions of Millis and Wilkinson in the same field. The persistence of the Cuban problem in our diplomacy can be read in the far from unbiased book of former Ambassador Harry F. Guggenheim, *The United States and Cuba*.¹²¹

¹¹⁶ Stanford University Press.

¹¹⁷ Appleton-Century Co. Published for the American Historical Association.

¹¹⁸ University of Oklahoma Press.

¹¹⁹ Yale University Press.

¹²⁰ Columbia University Press.

¹²¹ Macmillan Co.

A sweeping arraignment of our Latin-American policy and especially of "dollar diplomacy" can be found in Gaston Nerval's *Autopsy of the Monroe Doctrine*.¹²² This volume traces the genesis and the history of the Doctrine and indicts it on ten counts, but the indictment is neither original nor effective. Mr. Nerval is a crusader; he discovers the familiar, he argues the obvious, he sets up straw men and belabors them with many a resounding whack, but his book generates more heat than light.

The most notable contribution of the year to our diplomatic history is Charles Seymour's *American Diplomacy During the World War*.¹²³ This volume traces the impact of the European War upon American politics, the efforts of Mr. Wilson to preserve neutrality and, when the difficulties of neutrality mounted, to put an end to the war by diplomatic intervention, the threat of submarine warfare, the logic of Wilson's decision to enter the war, and the attempt to wrest from that conflict certain enduring gains. Wilson is the central figure of the story; he so dominates the scene that this study is to a considerable extent a chapter in the biography and an essay in the interpretation of the President. Upon him rested the maintenance of American neutrality, upon him the decision to abandon that neutrality, upon him the formulation of the objectives of the war and the bases of peace. Mr. Seymour is not concerned with the economic influences behind our entry into the war, chiefly because he is convinced that they were neither clear nor effective. He has slight patience with the Bryan peace policy which has recently attracted some attention, and quotes with approval Wilson's letter to Senator Stone, "Once accept a single abatement of right and many other humiliations would certainly follow, and the whole fine fabric of international law might crumble in our hands piece by piece."

Yet despite our entry into the war, and despite the League of Nations, the crumbling has gone on apace, and Japan's success in calling the world's bluff on Manchuria has led to a consideration of diplomatic realities which is less concerned with rights and more with consequences. The demand for a more realistic attitude toward foreign affairs is voiced in a symposium edited by Joseph Barnes, *Empire in the East*.¹²⁴ Written by experts such as Tyler Dennett, Grover Clark, Owen Lattimore, and Nathaniel Peffer, this book emphasizes the wisdom of a strategic retreat. Most of the contributors agree with Beard that the American stake in the Far East is not worth the cost of defending it, and with Dennett that sentimental implications of an Open Door policy cannot be maintained without dangerous risks. An interesting footnote to the history of our relations with Japan is furnished by Thomas Bailey in *Theodore Roosevelt and the Japanese-American Crisis*,¹²⁵ a volume which analyzes the background of the "Gentlemen's Agreement" and explains the purposes of the battleship cruise of 1908.

These volumes, for the most part, reflect a more mature attitude toward the stakes of diplomacy and the significance of our historic foreign policy. They reveal a growing appreciation of the relation of economics to diplomacy and of the importance of public opinion and of the organs which control it. It may not be entirely a coincidence that the volumes by Beard and Barnes appeared in the year which witnessed the abrogation of the Platt Amendment and the surrender of the Philippines.

X

A century ago historians studied society in order that they might formulate or

¹²² Macmillan Co.

¹²³ The Albert Shaw Lectures on Diplomatic History for 1933. Johns Hopkins University Press.

¹²⁴ Doubleday, Doran & Co.

¹²⁵ Stanford University Press.

substantiate some philosophy; within the last generation the formula has been reversed, and historians study philosophy and aesthetics in order that they may explain the character of society. Most of the critics of literature seem to have followed Parrington into the sociological camp, and even philosophical and religious ideas are often treated as so many exhibits in the historical laboratory. That this represents an intellectual retreat few would deny, but it does serve the immediate and obvious purposes of the historian. But we are not yet in a position to interpret the American character or to distinguish the American from the European mind, because we do not have as yet a comparative history of American society or thought. It was one of the virtues of Parrington's noble design that he projected it on a broad comparative basis; Harvey Gates Townsend's *Philosophical Ideas in the United States*¹²⁶ suffers from limitations both on the philosophical and the social side. It traces the history of intellectual criticism in America from William Brattle to Santayana, but it does not adequately relate this criticism either to its social backgrounds or to its Old World origins. Yet within these limitations, it is an admirable piece of work, thoughtful, critical, learned, discriminating. Other aspects of American character are illuminated by volumes of a more miscellaneous nature. Courtney Hall's biography of *Samuel L. Mitchell*¹²⁷ recreates for us one of the most interesting minor figures in the history of American thought. Physician, chemist, botanist, teacher, editor, politician, Mitchell boasted that charming versatility which characterized so many of the leaders of the early Republic. An abler scholar, but a less attractive person, is delineated in Linda Rhea's biography of *Hugh Swinton Legare*,¹²⁸ Charleston's leading man of letters and long editor of the *Southern Review*. A profound student of the science of politics, Legare was better fitted for the duties of critic and editor than for that public career to which he aspired and which he eventually achieved. Very different from the self-conscious, priggish Legare was that robust philosopher, Henry James, Sr., friend to all the philosophers and reformers of his generation. A short time ago Hartley Grattan drew him in relation to his two more famous sons; now Austin Warren has devoted a volume to him alone,¹²⁹ and it is apparent that his was one of the original minds of his generation. A family scarcely less famous than the James was that of the Beechers, and an author whose name indicates his own relation to that family has described some of them in a brilliantly written but somewhat superficial volume which he calls *Saints, Sinners, and Beechers*.¹³⁰

The change from the America of Henry James and Lyman Beecher to that of John Dewey and John Haynes Holmes is told in Joseph Dorfman's biography of that most interesting of economists, Thorstein Veblen. *The Life History of Thorstein Veblen*¹³¹ gives us not a biography of the man and an analysis of his writings, but a series of tableaux of American society in the period of Veblen's life span. It is an immense work, valuable for its social criticism, more valuable for its explanation of the economic thought of one of the most impenetrable of our philosophers. Mr. Veblen pointed out the futility of *laissez-faire* in the realm of social action and of economics, but it was a lesson that John Burgess for one refused to learn. A great teacher, a far-sighted edu-

¹²⁶ American Book Co.

¹²⁷ Columbia University Press.

¹²⁸ University of North Carolina Press.

¹²⁹ *The Elder Henry James*. Macmillan Co.

¹³⁰ Lyman Beecher Stowe. Bobbs-Merrill Co.

¹³¹ Viking Press.

cator, an able historian, Burgess borrowed from Germany the idea of the state but did not accept the German conception of the responsibility of the state to society. He has remembered his experiences as a student in Germany, and as a professor at Amherst and at Columbia University, in the *Reminiscences of an American Scholar*.¹³²

Two other books of reminiscence recreate for us the social atmosphere of the end of the century. Contrasting the stability and serenity of life in his boyhood with that of today, Henry Seidel Canby has called the period of the nineties, *The Age of Confidence*,¹³³ and he has described for us life in a small eastern town which was gracious and untroubled: a comparison with Theodore Dreiser's autobiography or with Brand Whitlock's *Forty Years of It* would go far to explain the sectional misunderstanding of the nineties that was so threatening. No one has better understood the changing standards of American society in the last half century than has Edith Wharton, and her panel of New York stories constitutes the best social history in our literature. In *A Backward Glance*¹³⁴ she has reminded us again how profound have been the changes in standards during her lifetime. Her autobiography contains charming pictures of early New York, revealing examples of the prudishness of literary criticism, and a warm appreciation of Henry James.

Miss Wharton eventually abandoned New York for France, but it is a far cry from France that Miss Wharton knows to the Paris of expressionism and dadaism described by Malcolm Cowley. Miss Wharton's expatriation was in the tradition of Henry James and Sargent; Malcolm Cowley and his friends were young men on the loose, eager for such experience, such broadening of the horizon, as Europe could give them. It is fitting to close this survey of the literature of 1934 with a mention of *Exile's Return*,¹³⁵ because Cowley has described an experience which is both typical and significant. It is not straining a point to insist upon the intellectual connection between Beard's *Open Door at Home*, Lomax's *American Ballads and Folk Songs*, the revival of regionalism, and Cowley's *Exile's Return*. All of them reveal a new appreciation of the richness and abundance of American life, an anxiety to discover what is significant and unique in American character, American letters, American society, and a determination to preserve the American heritage in a world "swept by confused alarms of struggle and flight, where ignorant armies clash by night."

¹³² Columbia University Press.

¹³³ Farrar & Rinehart.

¹³⁴ Appleton-Century Co.

¹³⁵ W. W. Norton.

Current Events in World Affairs

GEORGE H. E. SMITH

The Center of World News Shifts to the United States
The Critical Phase of the Recovery Program
Around in World Affairs

THE CENTER OF WORLD NEWS SHIFTS TO THE UNITED STATES

News items about America became prominent features on the front pages of the world's newspapers during recent weeks. It began with the Supreme Court's decision in the gold clauses cases; and for several weeks thereafter the rest of the world turned aside from its own special interests to observe the course of events in the United States. Reading over the headlines of happenings in every part of the globe, one could feel instinctively the shift of the center of news to the United States. During this period, even such events as the Franco-British understanding, Mussolini's warlike preparations for operations in Abyssinia, Paraguay's resignation from the League, and developments in the Far East, seemed like side-shows compared to events in the United States, the business in the main tent. The world has not paid such close attention to events in this country since the period spanning the bank crisis, the first recovery legislation, and President Roosevelt's spectacular message which put an end to the London Economic Conference in the summer of 1933.

The Nature of the Recovery Program. There is ample justification for this emphasis on American affairs. The recovery program has entered upon the third major phase of its development and the times are critical. What are these phases and why are they considered of such importance? Consider for a moment the nature of the recovery program as a whole. What is its broad relation to American life? "The rulers of the exchange of mankind's goods have failed through their own stubbornness and their own incompetence. . . . Their efforts have been cast in the pattern of an outworn tradition. . . . They know only the rules of a generation of self-seekers." In these words spoken at his inauguration and on the day of the great national bank crisis, President Roosevelt indicted the old order and marked out the lines of the new. Reviewing the recovery program as a whole over a year later, the President declared "We are at one in calling for collective effort on broad lines of social planning" which has three great objectives: "the security of the home, the security of livelihood, and the security of social insurance."

Much heat may be generated in a dispute over the question of whether these intentions and the measures carrying them into action amount to a social revolution. But to argue along such a line is to play with words to the neglect of the substantial things words are designed to express. Social revolution or no social revolution, there is present in the recovery program all the elements of a definite attempt to alter the direction of American life. First, there is the indictment of one way of conducting national life (the "old order"). Then there is the intention to displace it by another way of ordering national life (the "new deal," or the "new order"). And finally, there are the actual measures seeking such objectives as are implied in the words "collective effort," "social planning," and the securities of home, livelihood and social insurance. Whatever else

may be said about them, these elements stamp the recovery program as an enormous effort to shift the whole course of American life. Because this attempt to change American life has covered only a remarkably short period of time, and because it has extended into every section of the nation and has profoundly affected the interests of every individual in the nation, the recovery program has been called a social revolution.

So much for the general nature of the recovery program. Now a shift in any form of ordering human relations—whether it is of trivial nature in the life of an individual, or whether it shakes to the core the structure of a whole nation—consists of several steps or phases. There must be the shift itself, or the change from the old to the new. This is the first phase. Then there must be the operations and actions taken along the line of the new direction. That is the second phase. Following these is the third phase, the period of critical appraisal and reaction, which is usually accompanied by counteraction and compromise. The fourth phase is a sort of crude equilibrium between the resistance of the past and the pull of the future. No clear line—only a broad, blurred area of transition—marks off one phase from another.

A study covering the two years of the recovery program as a whole yields ample evidence that it is passing through some such broad cycle of development. The first phase (the shift from the old to the new) filled the period from March 4, 1933 to the following July. The President's message to the London Conference marks the high point of this phase. The essential element of this period was the body of amazing legislation passed during a highly dramatic session of Congress. The new laws were aimed to bring about fundamental changes in government organization, industry, agriculture, finance, and labor.

The second phase—that of concrete action taken along the line of the new direction—dates approximately from the summer of 1933 to September, 1934 when General Hugh Johnson resigned as NRA administrator. During that period there occurred principally the feverish drive to put all industry under code organization, the effort to organize labor and give it a voice, the working out of a scheme to organize, finance and control agricultural production, and the repair of the crippled banking system. There was also some additional legislation enacted during the period—such as regulation of the securities business and of the stock exchanges—but on the whole, the predominant note of the period was the effort to carry into actual practice the principles and measures which originally made up the shift from the old to the new.

THE CRITICAL PHASE OF THE RECOVERY PROGRAM

The third phase covers the period from the early fall of 1934 to the present time. It is the period of critical appraisal and reaction. The present is a high moment in this period because the appraising and reactionary forces have now reached the stage where they are able to exert positive pressure on the recovery program. For example, court actions have now matured and decisions going to the very roots of the recovery program are coming thick and fast from the courts. Interest groups—such as the American Federation of Labor, manufacturers' associations, and chambers of commerce—are making positive demands and using pressure to gain their ends. Congress is in session and is demonstrating a remarkable independence of action on questions which involve the whole field of the new deal. No longer is the cry for a new deal paramount as it was in 1932-1933. The new deal is here and has been here for more than eighteen months. Nor is the plea heard which demands a chance for the new deal to work. That also is water under the bridge; the new deal has been given a chance to work as far as the

state of American society has allowed. Nor yet is the cry one of whether the program has succeeded. The American people were asking themselves that question as long ago as last June when the President declared that "the simplest way for each of you to judge recovery lies in the plain facts of your own individual situation. Are you better off than you were last year?"

The dominant note today is to be found in such things as these: decisions of the Supreme Court holding section 9c of the NRA invalid, and substantially upholding the government's monetary policy as in the gold clause cases; decisions of the lower courts declaring labor section 7a of the NRA, and even the entire industrial recovery act, unconstitutional; the reported "break" between the President and special interest groups such as the A. F. of L., the revolt of the Congress against the administration on such matters as government personnel, the World Court, the "security wage," and the "blank check" to the President to spend close to five billion dollars in any manner he chooses. Today the cries are: "we are not satisfied with thus and so," and "we demand this and that." These are evidences of critical appraisal and reaction. They mark a period of conflict none the less significant because unaccompanied by violence. That these reactions will be met by counteraction is well illustrated by the fact that the President, the Government, and the Congress, were reported to be "in readiness" to "offset" any unfavorable decision of the Supreme Court in the gold clause cases. Other action to offset any successful attacks on the recovery program is also in contemplation. These things mark the third phase in the development of the recovery program. How long this phase will last is problematical. What it will lead to is equally uncertain; but unless some drastic overturn occurs, this phase may be expected to rail off and give way to the fourth stage, the period of compromise to the point of reaching a crude equilibrium between the old and the new. Only after this last phase has run well on its course will it be possible to make a real appraisal of just how far the recovery program has changed the fundamental principles and established course (before 1929) of American life.

What accounts for the prominence of United States news in world affairs today? Of the four phases outlined, the first and third are by far the most interesting and important to those who are either physically removed or not immediately involved in the scene of action. Interest in the first phase arises out of the novelty of the proposals to displace old institutions and old ways of doing things with new institutions and new methods of action. What is done becomes front page news and it remains so for quite a time because there is considerable curiosity of what it is all about and concerning the direction in which events are headed. The second phase in which the program is being put into effect is not as spectacular. As the novelty wears off and as curiosity is satisfied, interest in the program lags and attention turns elsewhere. But as the third phase sets in, interest is again aroused mainly because of the stimulation which there is in any process of challenge and conflict. The recovery program is now in that phase; and so it is that once again events in the United States have become the center of gravity of world news within recent weeks. What are some of the more important of these events, and what implications do they contain?

The Gold Clause Decision. Two events of considerable significance have been reported last month. They were the decision of the Supreme Court declaring section 9c of the National Industrial Recovery Act—the oil control provisions—invalid; and the defeat suffered by the administration on the World Court issue. Of greater importance

than these was the Supreme Court's opinion in the gold clause cases. Some six cases were involved. They fell into two groups. One group dealt with the power of Congress to change the nature of the contract in the gold clauses in private obligations—contracts, bonds, mortgages, and the like. State and municipal obligations were included in this group. The other group concerned the same type of clause in bonds and other obligations issued by the Federal Government itself. The gold clause in both groups was substantially a promise to pay the obligation "in United States gold coin of the present standard of value." It was estimated that these promises involved a total of from seventy-five to one hundred billion dollars. This was the situation prior to March 4, 1933.

The recovery program altered the conditions affecting these obligations. Gold was withdrawn from general circulation. Congress passed a Joint Resolution in June, 1933, voiding the promises in these gold clauses by declaring that legal tender currency was sufficient for the payments of these obligations. And then, in the Gold Reserve Act of 1934, Congress cheapened legal tender currency by giving the President power to change the weight of the standard gold dollar, which he did by reducing its gold content from twenty-five and eight-tenths grains to fifteen and five twenty-firsts grains of gold, both nine-tenths fine. Those opposing the Government sought to avoid the Congressional action so as to get payment of their contracts and bonds either in actual gold coin, or the equivalent in dollars at the old, higher valued dollar. That is, if they were to be paid in the current, cheaper dollar, they demanded more of them, or \$1.69 for every dollar of face value in their bonds and interest coupons. They contended they should receive payment in dollars measured by the old standard, higher valued dollar, which was current when they loaned their money by buying the bonds.

Dealing with the first group—the private obligations—the Court upheld the power of Congress to enact laws affecting the monetary standard even though such laws changed private contracts, as they did these gold clauses. Consequently, as to those obligations, payment in the current, cheap dollars is sufficient. In the case of the Federal Government's own obligations, however, "the Joint Resolution of June 5, 1933, in so far as it attempted to over-ride the obligation created by the (Liberty) bond in suit, went beyond the Congressional power." Thus, as to this second group, the Congressional action was invalid. The ground for this decision was simply that Congress having authorized its promise to pay in one gold value, it could not thereafter by its own act alter the gold value on which the purchasers of its bonds had relied. If the Court had stopped at this point the Government would have been compelled to pay \$1.69 for every dollar of face value of its gold clause obligations. But the Court went on to say that these actions on the gold clause were actions "for breach of contract"; and the claimant "can recover no more than the loss he has suffered . . . he is not entitled to be enriched." The plaintiff, the Court declared, "has not shown, or attempted to show, that in relation to buying power he has sustained any loss whatever." By this they meant that even if the bondholders are paid in the cheaper dollars no more than dollar for dollar on the face value of the bonds, they can with this cheaper dollar buy as much if not more in goods under present economic conditions as they could have bought with the higher valued dollar back in the days when the bonds were issued. Presumably, a dollar today will buy as much in terms of goods and services as would a dollar sixty-nine at the time the bonds were bought. Thus the bondholders receive equal value today to the value they loaned the government; and so they are

not damaged by the new gold policy. This being the case to give them the higher gold value they claimed would amount to "unjustified enrichment."

In such a fashion a most "momentous" decision in the annals of the Supreme Court was rendered without, it is true, doing little more than continuing the same state of affairs that had existed for some eighteen months before the opinion was issued. But this does not dispose of the question involved in these cases. There is a deeper significance below the surface. It must be sought in the relation of gold to what is known as the gold standard and in the bearing which both have on the country's economic system. The one essential element of the gold standard is the unrestricted right to convert currency and other financial obligations into gold at the free will of the individual. With the help of Congress, the administration took away that privilege. But bondholders had never conceded the power to Congress or the administration to do this. They looked to the constitution to upset the Congressional action. They firmly believed that the Supreme Court would declare such action unconstitutional and void. And at the least, they hoped that if they could not get actual gold, they could get the same benefit in the gold equivalent; that is, \$1.69 for every \$1 called for on the face of the bonds. This, they believed, would retain the substance of the gold standard. So they waited confidently for the gold cases to reach the Supreme Court.

It is at this point that the Court's decision becomes of significance. The Court refused to sustain the substance of the old gold standard. Thus, it destroys the last hope—the confidence—of the moneyed classes that they can collect full measure according to the letter of the bond. Now confidence of this nature occupies an important place in the phenomenon called inflation. When the confidence of the moneyed classes in the currency or money unit is destroyed, it has been shown by past experience that they will turn to other things of value, principally tangible goods and real estate. And this desire to get rid of currency and accumulate goods has, in the past at least, marked the first real step toward inflation. By destroying the hope of getting either gold or its equivalent in currency, the Supreme Court has at last brought the administration's monetary policy face to face with the question of inflation. This is not to say that inflation will come, because there are so many other factors to be considered; but merely that the last essential condition favorable to inflation is now present. Only the future can record the result; but the uneasiness over inflation is not quieted by the recent announcement of Secretary Wallace that an increase of some eleven per cent in food prices may be expected over the coming months. What if the increase fails to stop at eleven per cent?

In the MacCracken case, the Supreme Court upheld the power of the Senate to try cases of contempt against its proceedings, and presumably to punish individuals guilty of such contempt because Mr. MacCracken went to jail for ten days. Other decisions of great importance to the recovery program are now pending in the Court. They involve such questions as the constitutionality of the TVA, price fixing, code procedure, and the railroad retirement act. Two very important cases decided in lower courts are almost certain to be taken to the Supreme Court as quickly as the legal machinery will permit. In the Federal District Court of Delaware, Judge John P. Nields held that section 7a of the NRA (the collective-bargaining section defining labor's rights) was unconstitutional with respect to companies not engaged in interstate business. His decision further upheld the scheme of labor organization by means of unions allegedly

formed by the companies—company unions. This is the famous "Weirton" case which has filled the columns of the press for some time. In the other case, Federal Judge Charles I. Dawson ruled against the right of the Bituminous Coal Code to regulate wages; and his decision goes almost to the root of industrial organization under the recovery program. Attorneys for the government declared that appeals will be taken promptly in both of these cases.

Congress Reasserts Itself. Marked independence of action in Congress has appeared ever since the administration lost the World Court fight. The most important example of this determination to have its own way is that afforded by the Senate action on the McCarran amendment to the administration relief bill. The question at issue was whether relief workers shall be paid a "security wage" or the "prevailing wage" for the work they perform. The government favored the security wage which is a little above the subsistence (or charity) level, but not quite as high as the wage levels prevailing in private industry for like kinds of work. The Senate seemed to favor the prevailing wage. The fight took place in the debates over the \$4,800,000,000 grant to the President for relief purposes. By a vote of 44 to 43 the Senate prevailed, and the McCarran amendment providing that the prevailing wage be paid was carried. The measure now goes back to the House and undoubtedly will end up in the conference committee by which the House and Senate compose their differences. Indications point toward some sort of a compromise being worked out. Strange to record that in the heat over this subsidiary question of wage levels, the more important question involving the issue of work relief as against the dole received scant attention either in Congress or in the Press. In this second test of the administration's power over the Senate, twenty-one Democrats voted against the President, just one less Democrat than the number which helped to defeat the President on the World Court issue. It will be well if the President does not rely too heavily on the assertions of political observers made last November when they declared he had the Seventy-fourth Congress "in the hollow of his hand."

That the President may realize as much seems to follow from the way he presented Congress with the question of renewing the NRA. When he sent his message on the subject to Congress on February 20, he did not accompany it with the usual bill embodying his wishes. His message merely recounted the history of the NRA effort, apologized for the obvious shortcomings of the operations under the law, stated some of the things he would like to see in the new law, and then wished Congress Godspeed in its labors. Either the President is dubious about the benefits of the great partnership of government, business, and labor under the NRA, or his recent setbacks have given him vision to see the caution signal. In either event, the country will be treated to a free-for-all when new NRA legislation comes on for debate.

Electric Utilities Still on the Run. The attack on the electric utilities continues unabated. Mayor La Guardia again refused an offer of the electric companies serving the city to reduce rates to the city 25 per cent, unless the reduction was carried down to private consumers as well. The latest of the Federal Trade Board reports reveals more than \$1,463,334,892 write-ups (water) in the utilities holding companies' financial structure on which the public has to provide a return in the form of high electric bills. The Mack Board (New York Legislative inquiry) reported that the rates for household use of electricity were unjustified and unfair, and recommended public-owned plants.

And the New York Public Service Commission charged the private electric companies with instituting "nuisance" legislation to block the attempts of the commission to secure lower rates for the people.

American Foreign Relations. The most outstanding development in the field of foreign relations was the failure of the negotiations with Soviet Russia in the matter of adjusting American debt claims and trade negotiations. In his statement issued on February 1, Secretary Hull declared "The Government of the United States indicated its willingness to accept in settlement of all claims of the United States . . . (among other things) . . . a greatly reduced sum to be paid over a long period of time." He did not state the amount of this "reduced sum." The Soviet Government rejected the proposal. And much to his regret, Secretary Hull concluded that "the negotiations which seemed so promising at the start must now be regarded as having come to an end." And like a spoiled child, the State Department announced its intention of dropping the American Consulate at Moscow, and otherwise curtail its relations with a country covering one-sixth of the earth's surface, to show its anger over the collapse of the negotiations..

In the Senate, some eight treaties covering principally extradition proceedings and war service exemptions were ratified on February 6, in a few minutes. None of the treaties may be said to affect American foreign policies in any substantial way. More important action appears in view by the resolution of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee requesting the President to return to it for its further consideration the 1925 Convention for limiting traffic in arms and munitions. It is possible an attempt will be made to have the Senate consent to the ratification of this treaty without the emasculating reservations attached to it by previous Senate action. On February 2, another one of the new reciprocal trade treaties—with Brazil—was signed by the President and will go into effect in the trade between that country and the United States.

AROUND IN WORLD AFFAIRS

Except for Mussolini's warlike preparations for operations in Abyssinia, events in the international sphere were important but in no wise sensational. The only thing necessary to add to last month's treatment of the Italian-Abyssinian dispute is that further clashes between detachments of the troops of both countries continue to take place in the disputed territory; and that the Italian Dictator has increased his war preparations, sending a number of transports with more than ten thousand troops to Africa. The League of Nations has remained inactive on the question.

In a *communiqué* issued at the close of the Franco-British conversations at London, February 3, it was declared that the British Government look with favor on the Franco-Italian efforts to collaborate "in a spirit of mutual trust in the maintenance of general peace." The British Government agrees to "consult . . . if the independence and integrity of Austria is menaced." The agreement points toward a new settlement bearing upon the question of German armaments and the possibility of Germany's return to the League. A mutual assistance treaty by which the countries of Western Europe "would undertake immediately to give the assistance of their air forces to whichever of them might be the victim of an unprovoked aerial aggression by one of the contracting parties" was also proposed. The German Government did not take to these proposals enthusiastically, but indicated its preference to come to terms with its neighbors individually rather than by a general, multilateral agreement. In a brief note

issued on February 22, the Soviet Government approved of the aims of the Franco-British agreement. There is no doubt but that the subject will have further developments.

Undoubtedly as a consequence of the recent action of the League in raising its arms embargo on Bolivia and strengthening it against Paraguay, the Paraguayan Government resigned from the League on February 23. This seems to be a favorite method resorted to by nations displeased with League attempts to prevent aggressions and stop wars. It will be recalled that Japan resigned from the League when the League members condemned her aggressive tactics in China and Manchuria. It will be interesting to observe the effect of this development on the League's measures regarding the Chaco.

On March 1, the final act in connection with the Saar Territory was completed by the transference of the government of the area to the German authorities. The occasion was marked by a huge demonstration of Nazi pleasure over the successful termination of German policies concerning its western frontier. The world could breath much easier if this demonstration also marked some peaceful settlement of Germany's eastern frontiers for it is there that the future is dark and uncertain.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR
THE SOCIAL STUDIES

HOWARD E. WILSON, *Chairman, Harvard University*

NATIONAL COUNCIL MEETINGS

The social studies were much in the foreground of the discussions of the Department of Superintendence and allied associations meeting in Atlantic City, New Jersey, during the last week in February. Among the speakers at general sessions were Charles E. Merriam, Charles A. Beard, and Stuart Chase. A number of the sectional meetings dealt with aspects of social-studies instruction; at one of them Harold Rugg urged that teachers indoctrinate pupils for a new and better social order, while Charles H. Judd presented the difficulties in the path of such a course. At another meeting, the problem of "integration" was discussed, but with little agreement as to the meaning of the term. At one meeting Dean M. E. Haggerty of Minnesota debated with Jesse H. Newlon, of Teachers College, as to the value of the *Conclusions and Recommendations* of the Commission on the Social Studies.

The meetings of the National Council for the Social Studies, held on Saturday, February 23, were well attended. Three speakers at the morning session discussed the elementary-school curriculum; in the afternoon three speakers reviewed and analyzed the *Fifth Yearbook* of the Council. At the luncheon meeting Edgar Dawson reviewed the history of the Council and Roy A. Price presented interesting data as to the use of newspapers and magazines in social-studies instruction. At the dinner meeting the presidents of the National Council for 1934 and 1935 were the speakers. Several members of the Commission which is preparing the *1936 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence* attended the sessions of the Council; the chairman of the Commission, Superintendent Glenn of Birmingham, Alabama, spoke briefly at the dinner session.

An executive committee meeting of the National Council was held on Sunday, February 24. Most important of the decisions reached was the decision to hold a three-day meeting of the National Council in New York City during the last week in November. Plans for such a meeting are well under way, under the general direction of Edgar B. Wesley, president of the National Council, and W. G. Kimmel, chairman of the Committee on Local Arrangements. Plans were laid also for closer coöperation of the National Council with local and regional associations of social-studies teachers, and all such associations are invited to send delegates to the coming Thanksgiving meeting.

ANNOUNCEMENT OF ACTIVITIES OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The National Council for the Social Studies has as its major purpose the fostering of the interests and needs of instruction in the social studies in public and private schools as well as those of the teachers of these subjects. One of the activities sponsored by the National Council during recent years, which has met with favorable response from its members and friends, is the development of closer working relation-

ships between groups and organizations of teachers in different sections and regions of the United States. In this connection, it is the policy of the National Council that its President—for 1935, Dr. Edgar B. Wesley, University of Minnesota—shall be available for addresses and discussions of professional interests and problems upon invitation from groups and local, state, and regional organizations of social-studies teachers. Other officers of the National Council will also accept similar invitations when convenience in arrangements and time schedules will permit.

To extend the possibilities for useful service on the part of the National Council to its members and friends seems to warrant close coöperation and careful planning for the promotion of more effective instruction in the social studies as well as to coördinate the interests of groups and organizations of teachers, without in any way interfering with the autonomy of different groups.

Inquiries, correspondence, and suggestions should be addressed to Dr. Elmer Ellis, Second Vice-President, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri. Efforts will be made to group invitations from related geographical areas wherever possible in order to conserve the time and energy of the President and other officers of the National Council for the Social Studies.

THE REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON THE SOCIAL STUDIES

American Historical Association. Since there seems to be some misapprehension regarding the volumes in the report of the Commission on the Social Studies which are yet to appear the list follows:

Freedom of Teaching in the Schools, by Howard K. Beale, formerly Professor of History at Bowdoin College.

The Social Sciences as School Subjects, by Rolla M. Tryon, Professor of the Teaching of History, University of Chicago—(in press).

Methods of Instruction in the Social Sciences, by Ernest Horn, Professor of Education, University of Iowa.

The Selection and Training of the Teacher, by William C. Bagley, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University; and Guy Stanton Ford, Professor of History, Dean of Graduate School, University of Minnesota; and others.

A Social Process Approach to Curriculum-making in the Social Studies, by Leon C. Marshall, Institute for the Study of Law, Johns Hopkins University.

All of the above volumes should appear in the fairly near future.

CONYERS READ

Executive Secretary, American Historical Association.

TERCENTENARY OF AMERICAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

Since 1935 marks the three hundredth anniversary of the founding of the Boston Latin School, a great many collections of material on the growth of secondary education in the United States are being published for classroom or assembly-program use. The *Scholastic* for February 23 is enlarged to 128 pages and contains articles by leading educators on phases of the history of the American high school. Extra-curricular activities, vocational training, equipment and discussions on academic subjects are also dealt with by persons who are particularly concerned with these aspects of school administration. The issue is copiously and well illustrated and should prove of value for a long time to come in teaching pupils about the institution of which they are a part. Until

the supply is exhausted, additional copies of the *Scholastic* for February 23 may be secured for 50 cents. Address the Scholastic, 801 Chamber of Commerce Building, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

The January, 1935, issue of *Secondary Education* is entitled "Tercentenary Number" and is devoted to articles on the history, development, and present status of education in America and abroad. Realizing the value of this issue of *Secondary Education* to students, the Department of Secondary Education, 130 West 42nd Street, New York City, is making copies available at 10 cents each if sold in quantities of ten or more going to the same address.

Under the title, "Schools in the Story of Culture," the *Journal of the National Education Association* has collected the articles by Charles A. Beard and William A. Carr which have been published in the *Journal* since November, 1934. This timely and well illustrated booklet tells the story of schools from earliest days down to the present. Single copies of the booklet sell for 25 cents, with a smaller charge if ordered in quantities; write the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington, D.C.

ASSOCIATION OF HISTORY TEACHERS OF THE MIDDLE STATES

The Spring meeting of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States will be held in Baltimore, April 26-27. Tentative plans include one program based on state and local history with special reference to Maryland. For further details, write Miss Lena C. Van Bibber, Secretary-Treasurer, Preston Apartments, Baltimore, Md.

NEW MAGAZINES

Two new magazines have appeared recently which are of interest to social-studies teachers. The first issue of *Pulse of the Nation* appeared in February, 1935, under the editorship of Albert J. Beveridge, Jr. The magazine is intended as a progressive review of American opinion. The first issue contains articles on: "Arms and the Nye Committee," "The Press Tries Hauptmann," and "Judgment Day in Hollywood." Sections of the magazine deal with reviews of the news and with reports on magazines, books, movies, and the radio. The subscription price is \$1.50. Address Pulse, Inc., 705 New City Trust Building, Indianapolis, Indiana.

The second magazine is a fortnightly titled, *Vital Speeches*. It presents speeches of the day "by the leading moulders of public opinion." The issue of January 28, 1935 (Volume I, Number 9), presents recent messages of President Roosevelt and speeches on a variety of social topics by George N. Peek, Joseph W. Byrns, Nicholas Murray Butler, Homer S. Cummings, John Dewey, Glenn Frank, and others. The magazine is published by City News Publishing Company, 33 West 42nd Street, New York City, at a subscription rate of \$3.00 a year.

Consumers Defender, a monthly magazine published by Coöperative Distributors, Inc., 30 Irving Place, New York City, devotes considerable space to information of interest to consumers and lists a large number of products from cosmetics to clothing, all of which conform to scientific and federal specifications, that may be purchased through the organization. Consumers Distributors, Inc., is a national consumers co-operative association with individual and club memberships. Its main purposes are: "(1) To awaken in consumers a realization of their organized power; (2) to unite local groups of consumers into active Consumers Clubs; (3) to act as coöperative

purchasing association, and (4) to join with all other forces and organizations in paving the way to a classless society, based upon production for use—not for profit.”

OATH BILLS IN NEW YORK STATE

During the last session of the Legislature, the Ives Bill, which requires oaths of allegiances to the federal and state constitutions by all teachers in private schools and all institutions which receive funds from the State, was written into the statutes. It is now being challenged again by a Committee of distinguished scholars and teachers, who request that it be withdrawn from the statutes.

Meanwhile, Senator Nunan, during the present session, has introduced a bill known as the Nunan-Delvaney Bill intended “to stamp out communism,” which would require oaths of allegiance from students in all schools and higher institutions receiving state aid. Before a vote in the Senate, personal bickering, among members involving charges of lack of patriotism on the part of those opposing it, but without apparent regard for the wider implications of its proposals, characterized the session according to press releases. The Senate approved the Bill and it is now in the hands of the Education Committee of the House. As we go to press, delegations of several hundred students from sixteen colleges and universities and two high schools are in Albany to protest to Governor Lehman and the Education Committee. Eight fraternities at Columbia University, it is announced, have gone on record opposing the Bill, and a petition opposing it is said to contain more than 1,000 signatures.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

Teachers of the social studies other than history will wish to subscribe or have their school libraries enter subscriptions for *Monthly Labor Review*, published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor (Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, \$3.50 per year). Every issue includes several major studies, surveys of employment conditions, labor laws and decisions under New Deal agencies, wages and hours of labor, housing, wholesale and retail prices, to mention only a few subjects, together with important statistics and tabular presentations of data, in a useful list of current official and unofficial publications.

CURRICULUM GUIDES

In *World History: Ohio Curriculum Guides* (Columbus: State Department of Education, 1934. Bulletin No. 55. Pp. 17), prepared by Clarence D. Samford, is found a statement of objectives, methods and procedures, a brief outline of thirteen units, lists of names, concepts, dates and events, and bibliographical aids and references. The bulletin is one of a series of “Ohio Curriculum Guides,” issued in connection with the Ohio Scholarship Tests.

ACADEMIC FREEDOM

The *Report of the President of Columbia University for 1934* contains several trenchant paragraphs on academic freedom in relation to different levels of school organization and to tax-supported and private institutions of learning. According to President Butler, “*Lehrfreiheit* does not in the least imply freedom to act in contempt of the accepted standards of morals and good manners. It means only freedom of thought and accompanying freedom of expression as to any part of the field of knowl-

edge which a competent scholar has made his own. It is an essential attribute and characteristic of true university teaching and research. The situation in respect to the elementary school, the secondary school, and in large part to the college, is a quite different one." (p. 29)

With respect to the teaching of civics, which President Butler calls an "unattractive word," he writes: "At no time has it been the intention, or could it be, to offer to immature children an elaborate scientific examination and comparative study of despotism, of democracy, of republicanism, of communism, of naziism, of of fascism. That is something reserved for the older and well-trained student when he has put on the *toga virilis* and arrived at years of maturity with an informed and disciplined mind at his command. No people can ever dream of permitting their government to maintain elementary and secondary schools at public cost and at the same time allow to be taught in those schools that which undermines the government upon whose support the schools rest. One who will not or who cannot conform to this basic requirement of social order has no place in the teaching force of a tax-supported school. It is wholly absurd and unreasonable to attempt to apply to the elementary and secondary schools the ruling principles of university life and work." (p. 31)

HISTORICAL APPROACH TO METHODS

The *Fifth Yearbook* of the National Council for the Social Studies has now been mailed to all members of the National Council and is for sale to non-members at two dollars a copy through the McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia. The *Yearbook*, dealing with *The Historical Approach to Methods of Teaching the Social Studies*, and edited by Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota, contains a noteworthy series of articles which should be of distinct value to teachers and supervisors. Some of the articles deal with controversial materials, but, as was pointed out during the discussion of the *Yearbook* at the Council meetings in Atlantic City, all of them are stimulating and most of them are directly practical.

After an Introduction by the editor, the volume contains the following material:

Part I. Influence of Curricular Purpose on Method

Social Reconstruction and Method.....Harold Benjamin
The Effect upon Methods of a Changing Curriculum.....David Snedden

Part II. Influence of Pedagogical Scholarship on Methods

From Herbart to Morrison.....Jean H. Alexander
John Dewey and the Activist Movement.....Edwin H. Reeder

Part III. Influence of Subject Field on Methods

The Effect of Methods of Learning Law upon Appreciation of Justice. .Edwin J. Urch
The Source Method in the Teaching of History.....R. U. Hilleman
Changing Methods in Civic Education.....R. O. Hughes
Methods of Teaching Economics.....Herbert A. Tonne
The Use of Biography in Teaching the Social Studies.....John Schwarz

Part IV. Influence of Teaching Aids on Methods

The Use of Equipment in Teaching the Social Studies.....J. W. Baldwin
The Use of Visual Aids in Teaching the Social Studies.....Annette Glick
The Influence of Textbooks upon Method.....Tyler Kepner

Part V. Influence of Special Groups on Methods

The Development of Methods for Retarded Groups in the Social Studies.

..... Verna M. Kopka and F. Melvyn Lawson
Methods and the Socialization of the Rural Schools. Marvin Pittman

Part VI. Influence of Evaluation on Methods

The Influence of Objective Testing on Methods of Teaching. Henry Kronenberg

MEETING OF WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS

The 1935 meeting of the World Federation of Education Associations is to be held in England, at Oxford University, on August 10 to 17. An extensive schedule of meetings on a variety of topics is being arranged. Social functions, special tours, and an exhibit of English school work are included in the week's program.

The official representative of the National Council for the Social Studies at the Oxford meeting will be Miss Elsie F. Calvin, teacher of social studies in the high school of Newcastle, Pennsylvania. Members of the National Council who may be able to attend the Oxford meetings are urged to communicate with Miss Calvin as soon as possible. Special traveling arrangements and advice may be secured through Miss Calvin or directly from the World Federation of Education Associations, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D.C.

NEW MATERIALS FOR SOCIAL-STUDIES CLASSES

Materials on the Far East. Teachers who have been trying to find adequate materials for the teaching of the history and problems of the Far East will be glad to know that pamphlets for use in senior high schools are being prepared by the Institute of Pacific Relations. With the coöperation of Chinese and Japanese scholars materials are being selected and put into tentative form, the first publication awaiting experimental use in certain public and private schools.

Publications of the National Geographic Society. Along with its well known magazine, the *National Geographic*, the National Geographic Society publishes a variety of materials suitable for use in classrooms. Among these materials are nature and travel books, panoramas and maps, travel packets for children, sets of color sheets, and the *Geographic News Bulletins*, which appear weekly (annual subscription, 25 cents). The Society also announces that it has for sale a limited group of *National Geographic Magazines* of recent years. The price is \$1.00 for ten issues. For further information communicate with the National Geographic Society, Washington, D.C.

Use of Government Publications. From time to time the various departments of the Federal Government issue pamphlets and documents which can be very useful for the work carried on in social-studies classes. A recent publication, *The Real Property Inventory* of 1934, a reprint from the November issue of *Survey of Current Business* (Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce), is a valuable document for use in units on the consumer, housing, standards of living, and other similar units. Individual reports are also available for sixty-four cities. The general reprint and the individual reports cost 10 cents per copy; the general reprint, all individual reports, and a general summary may be obtained for \$5.00. For a

list of individual cities, write the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Washington, D.C.

Educating for Peace. With the defeat of the World Court it may be more difficult than ever to get proper consideration of international problems and especially those of war and peace in the social-studies program. Some schools have found it valuable to coöperate with such a well organized national group as the National Committee on Cause and Cure of War, which has groups in every state and in almost all cities of size. The organization sponsors regional as well as national and local conferences. Some of the local groups have coöperated with the schools in various projects. Contact can be made through member organizations or the national headquarters at 1624 Grand Terminal Building, 70 East 45th Street, New York City.

The World Peace Foundation offers new materials which will be of use for general reading and for reference purposes. Three new publications are: *Europe: War or Peace?* by Walter Duranty (50 cents) ; *Foreign Trade and the Worker's Job*, by Helen Hill (10 cents) ; and *Munitions Packet*, containing readily usable material on the Munitions Investigation and related problems (50 cents). The three items may be obtained at the special rate of \$1.00 postpaid. For information about these publications and others issued by the World Peace Foundation, address the World Peace Foundation, 8 West 40th Street, New York City.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Political Power. By Charles Edward Merriam. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1934. Pp. vii, 331. \$3.00.

This volume is devoted to a description of political power. It is not clear for what type of reader this volume was written, but it is hoped that teachers of history and government in schools and colleges will read it with interest and profit. Its scholarship is first rate; its theme is one of world-wide interest and importance; its style could have been more direct and forceful but this lack is not great enough to make it difficult reading for the well educated.

After a brief introduction in which the author marks some differences between political and other power and concedes something to the pluralists, the body of the volume offers ten chapters which undertake to answer something like the following questions: How does political power arise? What is its relation to other forms of power? Does similar power arise in sub-legal groups? How does power play on human credulity and sensational admiration? What of the shameful uses of power? How does the under-dog resist it? What are the minimum essentials for able power-hunters? How does self-abasement affect the holder of power—Ghandi? What conditions sicken and kill power? What kind of future seems to lie before power and power-hunters?

Chapter VII on the minimum essential equipment of power-seekers may seem to the reader the most practical part of the book. It takes one back to the directness of Aristotle, Machiavelli, and Montesquieu; but it is modern and strictly confined to the theme of the book. The ambitious must understand the social stresses, ambitions and weaknesses of their clients; they must know how to distribute rewards with finesse, avoiding the serious danger that comes from bungling good intentions; they must maintain an even equilibrium, observe moderation without fail, or they will lose their feet if not their heads; they must know how to distribute authority, and keep it while they give it away, the most powerful leader often being he who seems to have none; they must lead, catching the real admiration and confidence of their closest followers by constructive imagination, planning and real service on occasion; they must balance justice with order and be able to cut ruthlessly through technical justice for the sake of the real justice which comes only with order.

The chapter on the shameful use of power lists six classes of acts which have no more to do with political than with other power. It is not easy to see the need of the chapter on sub-legal groups, interesting as it is. But it may be that there is no real difference between political and other power except in the ends aimed at. All may be merely a matter of mass psychology and skill in handling it. If so, these chapters are pertinent.

The last chapter is highly stimulating and one catches the voice of a leader. It makes clear that political power is really going through fundamental changes; that society is in the pains of a new birth. Basic problems of economic organization are listed and basic elements of political organization to attack these problems with special stress on the control of the control—the problem which Fascism entirely fails to recognize. Among the instruments of power, possibly new, are mentioned civic education, propaganda, organizations, morale.

Then there is the author's clear blast of his own fine trumpet: "I look forward to fundamental changes in the political, the industrial, the religious, the scientific order

. . . that will shatter many of our present-day and historical power structures beyond recognition. . . . That violence and passion will remake these patterns in the future, may well be . . . for warnings are likely to fall on ears and eyes as indifferent as those who read in Babylonian days 'Mene mene tekel upharsin.'" (pp. 325-326)

"In the world into which we are madly rushing, no single factor in life will be more important than the composition and incidence of political power, and no task more urgent than the understanding and utilization of a force whose mastery may mean light or darkness for individuals and for civilization." (p. 14)

As is true of nearly all works on politics, the discussion suffers from the need of a terminology. The author uses authority and power almost interchangeably, and he often goes over into a vocabulary that seems of questionable value in such a discussion. Conspicuous is the chapter heading, "Credende and Miranda." While the theme is elusive and difficult, this is not a poetic enterprise; the purpose is extremely practical and important; one wonders if simple English is not the best vehicle of communication. The ideas are difficult enough to grasp even if they are presented to the reader in the most lucid form.

Unfortunately, this volume presents only half of the discussion of its important theme. As its author tells us, he has reserved the synthesis for a later discussion. To suggest, as he does, that these are "notes on political power, observations as I have journeyed along" (p. 13) is hardly fair to the book. It is an analytical statement; but it does leave the reader with a feeling that he has been skating on very smooth ice, or watching figures in a brilliant ball-room. If he is to carry definite impressions away, he must keep his feet carefully on the ground as he travels.

Hunter College

EDGAR DAWSON

What Marx Really Meant. By G. D. H. Cole. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1934. Pp. 309, vi. \$2.00.

The title of this book is misleading both to the reader and to the author. For those who wish to save themselves the effort of reading what Marx really wrote, this book is not a substitute. Mr. Cole, himself, has qualms to the extent that he concludes a volume which began with the determination to explain a writer in current terminology by suggesting that those who want to know what Marx meant ought to read him and not his interpreters. The author's purpose was admirable, even though he did not attain it. Those who have the American school-text pictures of Marx as an intellectual monstrosity and a vindictive personality will still wonder why his disciples have such clear insight into the historical and social process, as well as why they have so successfully helped to mold it.

It is one thing to correct the deliberate misinterpretations an author has suffered, and another to presume to tell not only what he meant but what he would say today. For this effort can only end in bitter dispute and the quoting of texts to support individual interpretations. That is to say, it degenerates into scholasticism. Yet if Marx was concerned with one thing it was with the activity of a social class to accomplish its end—the capture of the State. Had Cole simply expressed his intention of considering this problem (the seizure of power) in its economic, historical, and sociological setting as an outcome of his study of Marx, he would have avoided the whole question of "meaning" and the difficulty the reader has in establishing which of the books is Marx and which Mr. Cole.

The book is thus made up on a *melange* of exposition, interpretation, and criticism. There is not a quotation from Marx himself. As an interpreter, the author adds nothing to the writings of Benedetto Croce, Sidney Hook or Labriola on such fundamental questions as the inevitability of socialism, the rôle of great men in history, the meaning of "materialism" for Marx, or on Marx's epistemology. After discussing what he prefers to call "the realistic conception of history" (a term suggested and used by Croce thirty years ago) and the inherent contradictions of capitalism, now fairly well known, Cole attempts to define more precisely what is meant by an economic class and the circumstances under which class consciousness manifests itself in class struggles. In this section, Cole bares an explicit disagreement between himself and Marx. In contrast to what he construes Marx's expectations to have been, he finds that there has been an increase in the ranks of the middle class and a broadening of the ownership basis of capitalism co-extensive with a concentration of control under the corporate business form. The political corollaries of this fact Cole regards as highly significant. Either this salaried class of the bourgeoisie is welcomed into collaboration for the establishment of socialism by parliamentary means or it will operate under fascism for the retention of such meager privileges as it has over the proletariat.

To Cole, the economic basis of fascism is only an intensification of capitalism's contradictions. Through intensified nationalism, he sees a diminution in production and increased struggle for world markets. Yet this latter does not appear to be the tendency in fascist countries today. Colonization and imperialism are renounced; what is demanded is land so that the proletariat, the threatening force, may be spread on subsistence-farm plots. Under these circumstances, it is less likely that we shall have great imperialist wars in the future than that we shall have "small," local wars such as the present war in the Chaco or the Chinese-Japanese conflict.

About one third of the book is devoted to an attempt to fuse Marx's theory of value with the marginal utility concept. However unsuccessful, Cole does not lose sight of the fact that the labor theory is a proffered explanation of how, despite his legal "freedom" under capitalism, the laborer is just as definitely forced to render tribute as was the slave or serf.

Under the heading "Marxism and the State," the author presents succinctly the dilemma of all socialist parties, forced to keep capitalist industry operating and confident at the same time they are attempting lawfully to bring revolutionary consciousness to the workers. Parliamentary countries, Cole believes to be different "as long as they remain parliamentary." With this, Marxists agree. They merely doubt that any country can or will remain parliamentary in the face of the developments this generation has seen. They arrive at this doubt through the study of history and modern social phenomena.

University of California

HARRY CONOVER

America's Capacity to Produce. By Edwin G. Nourse and Associates. Washington, D.C.: Institute of Economics of the Brookings Institution. Pp. xiii, 608. \$3.50.

America's Capacity to Consume. By M. Leven, H. G. Moulton, and C. Warburton. Washington, D.C.: Institute of Economics of the Brookings Institution. Pp. xi, 272. \$3.00.

What is America's capacity to produce and consume? How much of its productive capacity is used? What are the social implications of excess capacity? How much of

the nation's annual income ought to be set aside for expansion? The urgent need for further statistical aid to the logical and theoretical analysis of these fundamental questions has, at least in part, been met by the timely appearance of two publications of the Brookings Institution. These volumes are to be followed by two more, *The Formation of Capital* and *Income and Economic Progress*. Together, the four volumes comprise a unified and comprehensive survey to which the authors have given the general title, *The Distribution of Wealth and Income in Relation to Economic Progress*.

The purpose of the first volume, *America's Capacity to Produce*, is to provide the basis for an answer to the question "Does America suffer from excess capacity?" The point of view is one of detachment. The study is not specifically intended to supply grist for the mill of either apologist or enemy of capitalism. The analysis follows two principal lines of investigation. The first, a historic one, aims to portray the relationship between the growth of plant capacity from 1900 to 1930 and the opportunity for its productive use. Moreover, the authors are interested in discovering whether plant grew faster than labor power to operate it. The second approach involves a detailed "cross-section" examination of that part of the New Era which fell between 1925 and 1929 to ascertain whether actual production kept pace with full productive capacity. Unfortunately, the investigation is not projected into the depression years. It is not, however, a part of the authors' intentions to do so.

Their emphasis rests upon finding out the ratio of unutilized to maximum capacity—the ratio of social waste in terms of unproduced goods and services—"even in prosperous times." They do this for each important division of production. In establishing necessary limits to this monumental task, the authors make it clear that their book is in no way concerned with estimating the magnitude of good which might be produced under a more advanced state of the industrial arts. No little ambiguity surrounds the concept, "capacity." Seasonableness, obsolescent plants, unavoidable shut-downs, the single or multiple shift rise to baffle the investigator who seeks a definite and measurable yardstick of capacity. Despite these difficulties, however, the authors succeed in working out a fairly reliable index. Important, also, is their distinction between "theoretical" and "practically attainable" capacity. The former rests upon purely technological standards, the latter upon conditions of "sustained simultaneous operation" of all parts of our inter-connected productive mechanism. The operation of all enterprises at maximum engineering capacity would create large stocks of certain goods for which there would be no present demand. The authors present their findings, of course, as percentage ratios of utilization of "practically attainable" capacity. Part I examines the raw material industries; Part II, the manufacturing group; Part III deals with "services" including banking, power, transportation and merchandising.

There are three general conclusions to the entire work. First, with reference to the historical study of unutilized plant from 1900 to 1930, the authors find that in agriculture, mining, manufacturing and power "there was no general tendency to pile up capital equipment in continually growing excess over what could be commercially employed." (p. 421) The sole exception was transportation. Second, a "net estimate of 19%" of our total practical capacity was unutilized over the prosperous period, 1925-1929, and about 20% in the peak year, 1929. These are composite figures computed from the specific ratios for each industry. The third conclusion, drawn from an elaborate array of "labor data," state that there would have been no labor shortage to man the 20% unutilized plant in 1928. This would have involved, however,

transferring more than 1,000,000 workers' families form one set of industries to another. The easy assumption of the authors that this problem of mobility "would not present serious difficulty" may be questioned.

The findings of this study are, at best, only approximate. One can scarcely expect quantitative precision from an investigation confronting many formidable obstacles of which the magnitude of the task, the inadequacies of source material, the limitations of the sampling method and the inaccurate estimates of unused capacity reported by producers are a few. Furthermore, the reliability of the capacity ratios varies. The measurement of unused capital plant in agriculture is certain to be crude. Much more reliable are figures on coal. Still more so are the records in cement, copper-refining, and most branches of manufacture. Because the physical plant plays a relatively small part in construction and merchandising, satisfactory ratios cannot be computed for them. The application of the capacity yardstick to labor and to credit and banking presents obvious difficulties. Moreover, productive capacity is affected by many factors—such as climate, quality of the population, public policies—which are not susceptible to measurement at all. It is regrettable that little space is devoted to the broad social forces which are responsible for excess capacity. Very brief mention is made of three—war, shifts in demand, and technological change. Whatever its shortcomings, and the same is true of *America's Capacity to Consume*, the book is of unquestioned usefulness as a reference work. The statistically-minded, especially, will find both books instructive and entertaining.

A reader who is impressed by the concluding note of the first volume that "nineteen per cent increase in the national product in 1929 would have added 15 billion dollars," (p. 429)—enough to double the income of the lower income classes—may raise the question "why did we fail to do this?" The analysis in *America's Capacity to Consume* is the first step toward seeking its answer. The period covered and the methods used are the same as in Volume I. Capacity to consume is identified with the aggregate national income conditioned, of course, by the way it is distributed and by the quantity of personal and corporate saving. The scope of this work is broader than the title indicates. In part I, the reader is led from a study of the size and sources of the national income into the way in which it is distributed functionally, geographically, and among families and individuals. An analysis of the disposition of family and individual incomes constitutes the second part. Upon what types of consumers' goods and in what relative proportion do wage-earners, farm, business, professional and well-to-do families expend their incomes?

Some extremely interesting facts are revealed here. At this point, however, lack of adequate information is keenly felt. Conclusions drawn from scattered family budget studies are assumed to be "fairly representative" of all families in a particular income range. The authors then formulate estimates of the expenditures of the American people as a whole and by income groups. In this way, we get a picture of class differences with reference to consuming capacity. The estimate family savings in each income group and corporate savings for the year 1929 are followed by a study of the trends of savings from 1900 to 1929. It was found that the proportion of income saved annually has been increasing relatively to outlays for consumption. Part III is given over to estimating the consequences to productive capacity if incomes of the lower groups were raised to a "minimum family income of \$2500" or to a "reasonable standard for all." Among the six "fundamental conclusions," there is none more important than that which points

to the need of virtually doubling our productive capacity if we are to attain either of these standards. The complete overthrow of the opinion that the United States has reached a stage of development which can produce all the American people would like to consume is one of the major accomplishments of the book. The remaining conclusions re-emphasize the accentuation of distributive inequalities, the growing magnitude of potential demand in the unfulfilled wants of the masses and others.

This admirable volume unfolds a story which will be distressing reading for many. If anyone still entertains the idea that America is an economic democracy, he should read this book carefully. Forty-two per cent of America families had incomes in 1929 of less than \$1500 per annum. Seventy-six per cent of the people lived upon or below a "minimum comfort" standard, while 0.6% of the population enjoyed incomes of \$15,000 or more. Ninety per cent of the families were not able to meet the demands of a "liberal" diet. "2.3% of all families contributed two-thirds of the entire savings." (p. 94) "The upper 10% of the families made about 86% of total savings." (p. 96) All this in 1929, a "prosperous" year! One eagerly awaits the two forthcoming volumes for the authors' answer to the question—to them the essential one in their ambitious undertaking—"does the existing distribution of income tend to retard or promote economic progress?"

Columbia University

ROBERT L. CAREY

Criminology. By Albert Morris. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1934. Pp. ix, 590. \$3.50.

The author of the present volume has written a general text in criminology. No original research is presented but the major concepts in the fields of criminology and penology have been thoroughly assimilated and freshly interpreted.

The first paragraph of the volume indicates its central thesis and range. "The business of criminology is to understand criminals as a basis for preventing their appearance or for controlling them. It begins with the study of offenders and their relations to the great system of which they are such a sorry part. It involves an attempted appraisal of all the forces, hereditary and environmental, that may contribute to their making and unmaking. It implies a critique of our present ways of dealing with criminals."

The book comprises five divisions. Part I deals with criminals in their relation to society: the field of criminology is described, the relations between criminals and the criminal law and the economic, moral and social costliness of criminals. Part II, which describes the natural history of criminals, includes a description and criticism of the major theories concerning the causes of crime. The general and specific methods of crime prevention are discussed in Part III, the prevention of criminal behavior. The more strictly legal aspects of the apprehension and conviction of criminals are reserved for Part IV.

Ten chapters on the treatment of criminals make up Part V. Under this section are found among other matters a description and criticism of the prison system, the jails, the reformatories, an excellent chapter on the reorientation of prisoners, probation, parole, and a final chapter on the penal science of tomorrow.

Yet without too readily accepting the pronouncements and theories of modern penologists, he indicates the growth of critical inquiry of the progressive minded in this field. He discusses the need for treatment being based upon individualized study

and diagnosis so that we might proceed intelligently no matter what path we choose; he recognizes the need for a differentiation of penal institutions to carry out the programs called for by diagnosis. Above all, there must be agreement upon the fundamental aims of treatment, which should be the social adjustment of criminal offenders. We must apply the "same rational, experimental technique of science to penology that we have applied so successfully elsewhere."

The author has centered his interest upon personalities rather than institutions and upon the effect of institutions upon personalities. Who are the people who commit crime and what is the character of those who attempt to control criminals? What have we then accomplished in the treatment of criminals? These are the central problems of the text. The author realistically describes the apparent failures of our traditional modes of prison treatment. He shows how bewildered and futile the realm of penology is, how we have no rational penal system.

An extensive list of topics for student discussion and subjects for reports based upon each chapter follow the appendix. A general list as well as a bibliography of selected references for each chapter is added.

University of Buffalo

NATHANIEL CANTOR

Contemporary Problems in the United States. Vols. I and II. By Horace Taylor and the Columbia Associates. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1934, 1935. Pp. ix, 516; vii, 545. \$2.75 per volume.

Since the academic year 1919-1920, Columbia College has conducted a required Freshman course called "An Introduction to Contemporary Civilization in the West." In 1929, this course was expanded into a two-year program with the second year devoted to a study of "the insistent economic, political and broadly social problems which exist in the United States today." The two volumes under review represent the most recent effort to give effect to the Columbia College second-year program.

The material in these volumes is organized around the problem of economic security. Volume One is devoted to a statement of the problem and a description of the economic organization within which the problem has arisen. Volume Two approaches the problem from the point of view of remedial measures, for the most part government inspired. Each volume is divided into six sections. In Volume One, the sections are headed respectively, "The Problem of Security and the Contemporary Economic Situation"; "The Organization of the System of Money and Credit"; "International Economic Relations"; "The Organization and Methods of American Business"; "The Problems of Agriculture"; and "The Problems of Labor." In Volume Two, the sections are entitled, "Law and Government in America"; "The State as Regulator"; "The State as Financier"; "The Provision of Security by Groups"; "Alternative Paths to Security"; and "Economic Planning in America." The topics considered in Volume One are those conventionally included in a beginning course in economics, while the subject matter presented in Volume Two usually appears in a course on government. Both volumes are, for the most part, composed of readings reproduced from recently published works. The lack of suitable published materials has been met by material specially prepared by Taylor and his colleagues. Continuity is provided by introductions to each topic.

Professor Taylor and his associates are to be congratulated for their attempt to break down the artificial compartmentalization that has stifled realistic analysis in social

science. It is amply evident from their treatment of the problem of economic security that no one social science provides the open sesame to an understanding of this or any other social problem. This point of view has found increasing expression of late in the introduction of general social-science courses into the secondary schools and colleges. Inasmuch as Columbia College is one of the leaders in this trend, it may be more worth while to examine the methods revealed in these two volumes than the materials included in them.

On the issue whether a general course in social science should emphasize theoretical analysis or description Columbia College prefers description. In the preface to Volume One, Taylor declares that no attempt has been made "to deal with the traditional concepts of economic and political theory; at no time has there developed a theory of value or of the state." (p. iii) Nowhere in these volumes is there any evidence to refute this declaration. The great mass of material presented—approximately 1100 pages containing more than 800,000 words—has been devoted to a description of economic and political factors relating to the problem of economic security. Concepts are introduced, but nowhere are they organized into a framework of reference that might be useful in analyzing the problem of economic security forty years from now. Nor is there much that is directly valuable in the analysis of any other contemporary social problem. Granted that students go through these two volumes and are able to distinguish the woods from the trees, it is doubtful indeed whether they will have acquired any analytical tools that will stand them in good stead in dealing with other social problems, contemporary or otherwise.

This lack of a framework of reference in this particular course or in these particular volumes may not be serious for college students. Other courses may supply the deficiency, as indeed they do in Columbia College. Those who look for a comprehensive treatment of contemporary American social problems will find the title misleading. Nowhere is there a consideration of the problem of crime, or of the difficulties arising out of our increased leisure time, or of the maladjustments evident in our domestic relations. Population problems are ignored as is also the whole topic of education. Surely these are among the contemporary problems in this country. On the whole, the readings included in these volumes give every indication of careful selection from the latest available sources. Furthermore, by using the photo-lithoprinting process, the authors and publishers will be able easily and inexpensively to make the frequent revisions they have promised.

It is most likely that *Contemporary Problems in the United States* will have its widest use in colleges. It should be a very valuable adjunct to conventional texts in economics or in government as a source of stimulating and timely readings. However, the limitations of the approach used and the mature tone of many of the readings lessen its utility in the secondary-school field. Nevertheless, school libraries unable to afford the sources from which the readings have been obtained should find these volumes useful for references purposes.

Colgate University

THOMAS H. ROBINSON

An Introductory Sociology. By Kimball Young. New York: American Book Co., 1934. Pp. xxiv, 615.

Kimball Young has been known chiefly for his work in social psychology. He is author of one of the leading textbooks in that field and has also given us the useful

Source Book for Social Psychology. He now makes a vigorous entry into the field of general sociology with its emphasis upon society in the large, and its treatment of the historical, geographic, populational, and other factors in addition to the psychological aspects. The present volume shows that his socio-psychological background is an excellent preparation for dealing with the essentials of sociology.

The book is divided into five parts: (I) Groups, Culture, and Personality; (II) Geography, Race, and Population; (III) Societal Organization and Culture; (IV) Fundamental Processes of Interaction; (V) Phases of Social Control. This organization, in the reviewer's judgment, is superior to that of any other textbook in general sociology, because it corresponds rather accurately to the really fundamental concepts. The author does not, like so many sociologists, allow some unique terminology or thought-system of his own to blur the picture. His outline of his subject agrees essentially with the outline recommended for an elementary course by the American Sociological Society in December, 1933, representing the consensus of opinion of American scholars in the field. He thus helps to bring about a certain needed minimum of standardization in a subject which formerly seemed to its beginning students a vast confusion of ideas.

One very useful feature of this book, and one seldom found in other sociological texts, is a glossary. In this are defined briefly 42 out of the 60 basic terms recommended by the American Sociological Society as a minimum which the student should be able to understand and use intelligently after completing the introductory course. The remaining 18 terms are, for the most part, obvious, or adequately explained elsewhere in the book.

The terminology and systematization, though of high quality, are fortunately small in quantity of space occupied. In other words the book impresses one as rich in content, full of "meat." It is informative as well as clarifying and stimulating. It abounds in concrete illustrations, specific facts about present-day problems, and references to sources of additional information. The author does not waste words in getting at the heart of a matter; he does not tire the reader with long abstract discussions, nor yet with unnecessary concrete details.

Young does much to clarify the popular notions about heredity and environment and human personality. He shows that personality may be analyzed into "personality type," which is probably determined once for all by the child's relationships to other persons in early life, and "social type," or rôle, which results from culture and social organization, and which often changes as the individual passes through successive age periods and social situations. He shows that the achievements of individuals and of societies are independent of race, and that even the intelligence tests are probably more tests of culture than of innate ability. He ascribes also most if not all the differences between the sexes to culture and not to innate biological differences. Culture, indeed, is the central concept of this book; it is, or is coming to be, the unifying idea of the social sciences generally.

The more advanced student of sociology may find Young's book somewhat rough-hewn, inaccurate in the use of some terms, insufficiently analytical at some points. Some eager beginners and some more advanced thinkers may wish that more were said about values and ultimate social objectives, a more thorough analysis of the present trends of social change and the alternative possibilities for the future, more inspiration or at least a positive orientation toward some ruling philosophy of life. Such, however,

are not the functions of a textbook in sociology. What this book sets out to do it accomplishes exceedingly well. More can hardly be asked of any single volume. It does present the more or less generally accepted universe of discourse which must be mastered before one can do any effective social thinking or research, and it does so clearly and interestingly. For the teacher who wishes to gain this minimum introduction to sociology as quickly as possible, the book has few if any rivals. It should also be readable by students of below college grade, and would be worth trying with high-school seniors. Such young students are often stimulated by a book which has, as this one does, the format and appearance of a work designed for older students, more than by one of the conventional secondary-school type.

Vassar College

JOSEPH K. FOLSOM

Shorter History of England. By Hilaire Belloc. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. 675, \$3.00.

We have come to expect certain kinds of history from Hilaire Belloc, but his present volume manages to be surprising in some ways. Most notably, he flatly opposes the prevailing fashion in proportions, as witness the following allotments of space: for before 1066, about 14 per cent; for 1066-1485, about 22 per cent; for the Reformation, about 20 per cent; for the 17th and 18th centuries, about 30 per cent; and for since 1815 about 14 per cent. From a reading of the text it is difficult to decide whether Belloc's ingenious explanations for this should be accepted or whether he was merely tired. There is also the possibility that he simply could not curb his pen when he wrote of the heritage from Rome (slighted by others, but certainly exaggerated by him), the glories of the Middle Ages and the tragedy of the Reformation, so that he had to adopt what becomes almost the method of a bald record for the history since 1815. The part of the volume which will be most stimulating to discriminating students of history is that dealing with England before 1700. Mr. Belloc likes paradox and novelty and even his more unorthodox suggestions can be stimulating of useful re-examination of older views. It is doubtful whether beginning students should read the book. It will, of course, be very congenial to Roman Catholic students.

J. B. B.

Employment and Relief. By Robert G. Elbert. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1934. Pp. xii, 136.

The author is a retired capitalist, at present a member of the Business Advisory and Planning Council of the Department of Commerce. He believes in the profit system, in unemployment insurance and work relief and his book consists of concise, often interesting suggestions on these problems, all from the point of view of one whose attitudes have been formed as an employer of labor in private industry. For instance, he says: "All the projects of the National Public Works Administration should be let out to contractors and not done directly by the Administration, and the labor employed should receive the regular trade wages. The contractors ought to be allowed to select their own workers, just as they do on any other job."

The book is an easily read and interesting expression of the attitudes of an informed and liberally inclined employer to the problems of unemployment and relief, and will be of value to teachers in secondary schools in contrasting this type

with the reactionary type of employer to whom the author refers, and with whose attitudes on economic problems he contrasts his own more liberal attitudes.

Hobart College

JAMES M. WILLIAMS

Documents of American History. Edited by Henry Steele Commager. New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1934. Pp. xxi, 454. \$4.00.

This volume contains 486 documents, arranged chronologically, covering the period from 1492 to June 15, 1934. Each document, in complete form or suitable excerpts, is preceded by a statement of its source and a short introduction, which includes a brief bibliography of important and authoritative titles for orientation and for further reading. The selection of documents "has been determined by the experience of the classroom, by personal interest, and by availability" (p. ix). In general, the list includes charters, statutes, resolutions, treaties, messages, conventions, and other materials of a public or quasi-public nature. Certain longer documents are omitted because of limitations of space, as are letters, diaries, and other similar materials useful for an understanding of social and economic history. In almost one thousand double-column pages, the editor has provided the most comprehensive series of documents available in one volume, which is easy to handle with a pleasing format, legible type, and an index. It is an indispensable book for teachers, students, and school libraries. Alert teachers will find desk copies useful for ready reference as well as a convenient aid for effective instruction in the development of accurate and impartial thinking on the part of students.

Report on The Teaching of History and Civics in Victorian Secondary Schools. By the History Sub-Committee of the Victorian Institute of Educational Research. Edited by Alice Hoy. Melbourne: Melbourne University Press in association with Oxford University Press, 1934. Pp. 78. 2/6.

The report of a questionnaire investigation is based on replies received from 77 of the 279 schools of six different types in Victoria. Facts on programs, courses of study, special education of teachers, their views, the influence of examinations, the kinds and amount of equipment are summarized and interpreted, with occasional recommendations made by the Sub-Committee. A growing movement in favor of a revised and broader syllabus for history is noted, along with the cultural value of European and world history. The personality of the teacher, his equipment and attitude, are closely related to the quality of instruction and the attitude of pupils toward the subject. Emphasis on wider reading and the values of individual work for pupils are recommended. The cramming for external examinations with negative effects on teachers, pupils, and instruction is deplored by the Sub-Committee, as is the inadequate equipment for the teaching of history in the great majority of schools. Civics is a subject for examination rather than closely related to life; many teachers limit it to a study of the machinery of government.

W. D. Forsyth, in "Victorian Secondary Schools and Education for International Understanding," in an appendix to the Report, summarizes a questionnaire investigation. A great majority of 77 schools replying include a study of the League of Nations and current events of importance, but the history courses leave much to be desired in terms of contributions to international understanding.

Organization for Social Welfare with Special Reference to Social Work. By George B. Mangold. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. xv, 494. \$3.50.

The author's approach is through the presentation of problems faced in social service combined with descriptions of a wide variety of public and private organizations and their functions. Following a treatment of the evolution of social work, organization in special fields such as dependent and neglected children, adult dependents, family welfare and parent education, delinquency, medical charities and psychiatric social work, activities with immigrants and negroes, and employment service is handled in detail. A final section of five chapters deals with public and quasi-public agencies such as local and state governmental activities and the community chest. Intended primarily for social workers and students in this area, this volume with its concrete facts and descriptions will be useful for teachers in community civics, social problems, and government in secondary schools. Suggested references and an index are provided to aid the reader.

Introduction to Rural Sociology (Revised Edition). By Charles Russell Hoffer. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1934. Pp. xiv, 500. \$3.00.

This edition includes three new chapters on "Rural Children," "Rural Youth," and "Rural Leaders." Other chapters have been amplified to include later research and the reports of different major committees and conferences; tables are brought up to date from the 1930 Census and from later investigations and studies. The reader, however, will find little reference to the social disorganization produced in rural areas by the depression and the later provisions for the alleviation of distress.

Raleigh. By Irvin Anthony. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1934. Pp. x, 339. \$3.25.

Anthony's volume is a popular biography rather than a serious historical work. Its curious bibliographical note is not reassuring and does not contain Stebbing's standard work. The book is written in an arresting style with whole paragraphs of four, five and six word sentences, but this will prove wearying to many and in general the prevalent inferential method does not give confidence. B.

Democratic Collectivism (The Reference Shelf, Vol. IX, No. 10). Compiled by Helen M. Miller, New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1935. Pp. 161. 90c.

This convenient volume, as in all titles of the group, brings together a series of general discussions, followed by representative affirmative and negative presentations, reprinted from many sources. The general news release and three articles on the *Conclusions and Recommendations* of the Commission on the Social Studies are followed by discussions of individualism, collectivism, socialism, and related topics. A brief in outline form and a five-page bibliography are included. The titles in this series deserve a larger place in senior high-school libraries, especially in these times when different points of view should receive attention and expenditures for periodicals are very limited.

The Recovery Program (1933-1934): A Study of the Depression and the Fight to Overcome It. By George H. E. Smith and Charles A. Beard. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. 59. 48c.

Following summary statements of the characteristics of "depressions" and theories set forth on their causes, the authors provide a factual presentation of the various agencies and policies developed by the federal government to cope with the many-sided problems. A general summary of "The Direction and Spirit of the Recovery Program" refrains from any attempt at appraisal. Appendices include a list of important laws passed during both sessions of the 73rd Congress, a list of the new administrative agencies, and an organization chart of the federal government. A number of cartoons are reproduced; there is an index.

Foreign Trade and the Worker's Job (Popular Pamphlets on World Problems, No. 1).

By Helen Hill. Boston and New York: World Peace Foundation, 1935. Pp. 40. 10c.

This pamphlet, with a Foreword by John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education, is concerned with the orientation of the worker with respect to foreign trade. Goals of American production, with emphasis on the failure of workers to organize for political purposes or the failure of such organization in countries where tried, is followed by a brief presentation of the relation of the division of labor to the development of international trade, a brief résumé of the fluctuations from 1914 to the present time, how tariffs affect the worker and who pays for them, the relationships between foreign trade and the standard of living, and the necessity for wise choices with respect to tariff and foreign trade policies. There is a glossary of fourteen terms. The pamphlet is written in a popular style with a minimum of statistical data; it will be useful for adult and secondary-school classes as well as for the general reader introduced for the first time to materials in this area.

New Frontiers of Democracy: The Story of America in Transition. By E. E. Lewis and M. M. Chambers. Columbus: American Education Press, Inc., 1935. Pp. 96.

Organized in terms of sixteen units, this pamphlet is concerned with a presentation of various phases of the New Deal and the agencies and organizations established by the federal government. Each unit is introduced by a series of problems; suggestions for further reading are appended. The large number of charts, graphs, illustrations, and cartoons are used to advantage. Teachers of courses at the senior high school and junior college levels will find in this compact pamphlet a convenient aid for students.

Economics: An Introduction to Fundamental Problems. By Augustus H. Smith. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1934. Pp. xv, 542. \$1.60.

This textbook includes only those topics which the author "has found to be essential to an understanding of the business world, which practically all graduates of high schools will enter." (p. vii) In thirty-five chapters, beginning with the study of economics and characteristics of economic life, the author surveys human wants and consumption, production and industrial organization, exchange and marketing, money and credit and financial organization, international trade and tariffs, problems of distribution and transportation, industrial problems, public finance, and economic reform. The presentation is a combination of descriptive and problem approaches. Pedagogical aids include a series of twenty-three major problems, vocabulary exercises, questions for discussion, topics for special reports, references to high-school and college texts and special volumes, a glossary, and an index.

History of the United States, Vol. I, 1492-1865 (Enlarged Edition). By Asa Earl Martin. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1934. Pp. xiii, 957. \$4.00.

The enlarged edition includes an Introduction and six additional chapters on the period from 1492 through the war for American independence. The approach is "a combination of the chronological and topical methods of treatment," stressing "especially interpretation and coördination." (p. iii)

Medieval and Modern Times: An Introduction to the History of Western Civilization from the Dissolution of the Roman Empire to the Present Time (Second Revised Edition). By James Harvey Robinson. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1934. Pp. xii, 825, xliii. \$2.12.

This standard textbook, organized in terms of major topics "of wide-ranging importance essential to the understanding of our past and a comprehension of the present," with the principal emphasis on the period since 1700, has been brought up to date, with a new cover design, many plates some of which are in color, 25 colored maps, and a comprehensive index.

Civics at Work: A Textbook in Elementary Civics. By Thomas Ross Williamson. Revised by William A. Hamm. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1934. Pp. xiii, 412.

Four new chapters on the depression, banking, farming, business and labor in relation to later developments in government, the rewriting of two other chapters, and an appendix of suggestions and activities, are included in this revision.

The Citizen and the Republic: Problems in American Democracy. By James Albert Woodburn and Thomas Francis Moran. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1934. Pp. lvii, 561. \$1.64.

This revision of a well-known textbook is printed from new plates; it includes new materials to bring the content up to date, new photographs, and a glossary.

Among the Current Magazines

GERTRUDE R. B. RICHARDS

Ames, Richard S. "The Screen Enters Politics," *Harpers Magazine*, CLXX (March, 1935), 473-482.

The screen was a potent factor in the defeat of Sinclair in 1934; the films dealing with Russia are subtly anti-Soviet; and screen fare has not shown any enthusiasm for the New Deal; alone of all mediums of propaganda, it permits the accused no reply; to this extent it is contrary to justice and should be investigated with a view of determining responsibility.

"A National Inventory of Human Welfare. No. 3. The Tax Burden," *Information Service* (105 E. 22nd Street, New York City), XIV (February 9, 1935), 1-4.

The third of a series of convenient summaries of the literature in different areas of social interest, packed with facts and data selected from representative and authoritative sources.

Angell, Ernest. "Shall We Nationalize Munitions?" *Harpers Magazine*, CLXX (March, 1935), 407-417.

The nationalizing of munitions is a highly technical question, and would not in itself prevent war.

Beals, Carleton. "Japan Invades Latin America," *American Mercury*, XXXIV (March, 1935), 299-306.

Japan's success in gaining control of the Latin American markets is due to low prices and to her adaptability in making what appeals to the Latin American rather than disposing of surplus.

Byas, Hugh. "No Cause for Conflict," *Asia*, XXXV (March, 1935), 149-151.

The naval expansion of the United States and Japan is futile, since neither desires what the other possesses and there is no rational cause for a Japanese-American conflict.

Carmichael, Alice. "Calles and the Mexican Malaise," *American Mercury*, XXXIV (March, 1935), 343-351.

The Calles machine has effectively checked all movements toward social and political reform which were inaugurated two decades ago.

Chase, Stuart. "Government in Business," *Current History*, XLI (March, 1935), 641-659.

The economic systems of the whole civilized world are caught between a retreat to rugged individualism and price war on the one hand, and advance to socialism and more rigid control on the other.

"Compulsory Unemployment Insurance," *Congressional Digest* (2131 LeRoy Place, Washington, D.C.), XIV (February, 1935), 33-64 (whole No.).

This number includes excerpts from the President's Message (January 17) to Congress, and Senator Wagner's explanation of a bill, S. 1130. An address by Secretary of Labor Perkins, the Report of the President's Committee on Economic Security, Edwin E. Witte, Executive Director of the President's Committee on Economic Security, William Green, and Abraham Epstein are included as favorable to the proposals. Among those in opposition are included: Charles Denby, Jr., of the American Bar Association; Merwin K. Hart, President of New York State Economic Council;

Noel Sargent, Secretary, National Association of Manufacturers; and James L. Donnelly, Vice-President, Illinois Manufacturers' Association. In addition to excerpts from government bulletins and other publications on the British, German, Wisconsin, Ohio, and other plans, a glossary of terms and a bibliography are appended.

"Congress Faces the Question of Old-Age Pensions," *Congressional Digest* (Washington, D.C.), XIV (March, 1935), 65-96.

This issue includes materials and excerpts from government publications, committee hearings, press statements, and other sources by the President's Committee on Economic Security, Senator Wagner, Senator Hastings, Senator Gore, Professor J. Douglas Brown, Dr. Henry E. Jackson, I. M. Rubinow, Noel Sargent, Dr. F. E. Townsend, Walter Lippman, and others. A chronological outline of action and provisions by states since 1907, the cost of existing federal pension and retirement systems, a comparative survey of foreign systems, a brief description of different plans proposed by individuals, and a bibliography are other features of this number.

Coyle, David C. "Economic Security and Business Stability," *Scribner's Magazine*, XCVII (March, 1935), 129-135.

Business needs a more stable price and money mechanism; if these are to be provided safely and sanely, it must be by government operation.

Einzig, Paul. "France's Many-Sided Crisis," *Current History*, XLI (March, 1935), 667-674.

The elements of the present situation in France are the lack of public confidence, the chronic budgetary crisis, the monetary crisis, the industrial crisis and the moral crisis; the only way out lies through devaluation of the franc.

Feld, Rose C. "Sweatshops, Model 1935," *Forum*, XCIII (March, 1935), 168-171.

The work done at home disregards all code provisions on hours, wages, and child-labor; the results tend to disorganize industry and undermine the economic structure and destroy the morale of employers and workers alike.

Gould, Kenneth M. "Social Factors in Revolution," *American Scholar*, IV (Winter, 1935), 50-77.

Unrest does not always lead to revolution; the economic incentive under leaders of intellectualism is the most potent factor in overturning the established order.

Hacker Louis M. "Revolutionary America," *Harpers Magazine*, CLXX (March, 1935), 431-444.

The social revolution that we are now undergoing is not a post-war product, but is the direct result of forces set in motion at the time this government was first established.

Hirschfeld, Gerhard. "Can China Stem the Communist Tide?" *North American Review*, CCXXXIX (March, 1935), 257-262.

Only lack of efficient organization prevents the Communists from gaining control of China as the people have nothing to lose save poverty and debts and will accept any shadow of a hope of escape.

Johnson, G. E. W. "The Kingless Kingdom," *North American Review*, CCXXXIX (March, 1935), 239-249.

Jugoslavia suffers now for lack of intelligent leadership; in the recent controversy with Hungary she had a strong case but her negotiators blundered sadly. The situation is complicated by the policies of the various bystanding nations, who are

just as apt to plunge the world into another war as they are to defend the rights of the smaller nations.

Lester, Richard A. "Check-Book Inflation," *American Scholar*, IV (Winter, 1935), 30-41.

The full-reserve system is no cure-all for national monetary troubles, but it would eliminate such major currency evils as creation of money by a private group, over-expansion and over-contraction on the part of banks and tying money available to money demanded.

Morgan, Arthur E. and Hooker, Elon H. "Power and the New Deal," *Forum*, XCIII (March, 1935), 131-138.

Dr. Morgan urges government control of utilities as the only adequate check upon industrial selfishness; Mr. Hooker insists that such a procedure would be industrially inefficient and open the way to increased political graft.

Orton, William. "Understanding the Nazis," *North American Review*, CCXXXIX (March, 1935), 226-232.

The past of the German peoples has made it impossible for them to work out a satisfactory bi-party system; despite their economic philosophers, they are now desirous of lifting their entire social structure out of the market-place and to establish a culture based on personal relations rather than on the mechanisation of society.

Osterlenk, Bernhard. "Immigration and Unemployment," *North American Review*, CCXXXIX (March, 1935), 212-216.

Immigration neither lowers the standard of living nor does it increase unemployment; rather it results in vigorous industrial activity.

Pearson, Drew and Allen, Robert S. "The President's Trigger Man," *Harpers Magazine*, CLXX (March, 1935), 385-394.

"Big Jim Farley's" career has been spectacular; his hands are gory with plunder; his judgment is as atrocious as his greed; but he symbolizes a system handed down from President to President, and his exit would solve no fundamental problem of reform.

Pritchett, Henry S. "What's Wrong With Congress?" *Atlantic Monthly*, CLV (March, 1935), 288-294.

The legislative decadence in this country is caused by the breakdown of the two-party system; the timidity of Congress in the face of group lobbies; and the apathy of the people themselves.

Shotwell, James T. "Sea Power and the Far East," *Current History*, XLI (March, 1935), 660-666.

The United States does not need more ships in order to deal effectively with Japan; she should make an effort to undo the injustice of the Exclusion Act, while Japan, for her part, should be required to raise the standard of wages so as not to engage in unfair industrial competition. China must set her house in order before she can insist on her rights as a nation.

Sokolsky, George E. "Wages: The Crux of Our Problem," *Atlantic Monthly*, CLV (March, 1935), 339-347.

It is necessary first to have the market before prices are raised and to increase wages afterward. The market depends on the earning wage of the consumer, which means a lower price and a lower wage.

Wilson, Charles Morrow. "A New Concept of Crops," *North American Review*, CCXXXIX (March, 1935), 218-225.

If certain by-products are used for industrial purposes, the agricultural products would lead to prosperity rather than to disaster and a surplus would always be advantageous.

Wilson, P. W. "Anything or Nothing," *North American Review*, CCXXXIX (March, 1934), 198-203.

The immediate result of an adoption of the Townsend Plan would be inflation and chaotic rise in prices.

Wilson, P. W. "Taxing the Citizen's Income," *Forum*, XCIII (March, 1935), 142-146.

The small and average tax-payer in this country bears the larger burden of this exaction while the millionaire is either lightly taxed or goes scot free.

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- Cambon, Jules; von Kühlmann, Richard; Chamberlain, Sir Austen; Grandi, Dino; Viscount Ishii; Radek, Karl; and Davis, John W. *The Foreign Policy of the Powers.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1935 (published for the Council on Foreign Relations). Pp. 161. \$1.50.
- Dafoe, John W. *Canada, An American Nation.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1935. Pp. 134. \$2.00.
- Heiden, Konrad. *A History of National Socialism.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1935. Pp. xvi, 430, viii. \$4.50.
- McGrane, Reginald C. *Foreign Bondholders and American State Debts.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1935. Pp. vii, 410. \$4.00.
- Neely, Wayne Caldwell. *The Agricultural Fair.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1935. Pp. xii, 313. \$3.75.
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- Simonds, Frank H. and Emeny, Brooks. *The Great Powers in World Politics. International Relations and Economic Nationalism.* New York: American Book Co., 1935. Pp. xii, 644.
- Willys, Rufus Kay. *Pioneer Padre. The Life and Times of Eusebio Francisco Kino.* Dallas: Southwest Press, 1935. Pp. xi, 230. \$3.00.

ECONOMICS

- Harding, T. Swann. *The Popular Practice of Fraud.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1935. Pp. vii, 376. \$2.50.
- Loeb, Harold and Associates. *The Chart of Plenty.* New York: Viking Press, 1935. Pp. xv, 180. \$2.50.
- Wootton, Barbara. *Plan or No Plan.* New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1935. Pp. 360. \$1.60.

POLITICAL SCIENCE

- Haines, Charles G. and Dimock, Marshall E., eds. *Essays on the Law and Practice of Governmental Administration.* Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1935. Pp. xvii, 321. \$3.00.
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- Robinson, Daniel Sommer. *Political Ethics.* New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1935. Pp. xviii, 288. \$2.00.

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- Fitzgerald, Walter. *Africa. A Social, Economic and Political Geography of its Major Regions (with 90 maps).* New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1935. Pp. xv, 462. \$5.00.

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THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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- Duranty, Walter. *Europe, War or Peace?* New York and Boston: Foreign Policy Association and World Peace Foundation, 1935. Pp. 47. 25c.
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- Gil, Emilio Portes. *The Conflict Between the Civil Power and the Clergy.* Mexico: Press of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1935. Pp. ix, 135.
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